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## The Power and Meaning of Education.

Address of Bishop Spalding, delivered before an audience of 1,500 at the annual convention of the Wisconsin State Teachers' Association, held at Milwaukee, December 29, 1904.



Rt. REV. J. L. SPALDING

"Habit is the second nature of man. Education tends to habit. Infinite repetition results in habit. If we are able to induce the child to repeat with attention and eagerness success is certain. The body is made educational than the mind. Everything that distinguishes bodily action is the result of education. The greatest nations are those that give themselves the best education. Nations of history are those which continue to educate the world—not those which have conquered or possessed wealth. Israel, Greece and Rome were the greatest nations.

### RELIGION IS INTELLECTUAL CULTURE.

"Faith that by conduct men succeed or fail is necessary. It is not what man thinks, but what he does that is the determining factor in life. Three-fourths of our lives are determined by the Bible and the teachings of Christ. As we receive religion we receive intellectual culture. The Greeks are our masters. Sparta, which developed the physical being, left no lasting effect. Athens, which developed spiritual being, which is man's self, achieved success which has never been equaled. We are still disciples of Rome in matters of law and government. We need heroes also because even today a nation cannot maintain its place without men of courage.

"It is a radical mistake to imagine that the school is the chief agent of education. Unless the home gives the preliminary education, the school is in vain. A state could not build up without first having the home. Those nations are able to have the best schools which have the best homes. There is man first taught that he does not exist for himself. There he is taught worth of love, obedience, self-sacrifice, truth and forbearance.

"Schools cannot exist without the state. The home hardly can exist without the state. We can't make a

home in a rented room—in a hired building. A home, in the right sense of the word, cannot exist without property. A spot of earth is the foundation. The heart makes the home. The more permanent the home the better able are we to prepare the child for higher education. Where people rule with all civil authority in their hands we have best education. Education springs largely from a sense of responsibility. The worst foe of liberty is ignorance. In some nations illiteracy has almost ceased to exist.

### EDUCATION'S AIM LOVE OF WORK.

"The aim of schools is to create intellectual and moral habits. The great end of education is to make us love work. It should teach men to have mental curiosity and a longing for knowledge. If the mind is used it will acquire new skill and strength. It is the rarest thing in the world to find men who take delight in serious study, in analyzing and constantly striving to see things as they are. Difference in men rests largely in difference in will power. Genius is tireless spirit that will not let men rest.

"In this age of machinery it is almost impossible for the laborer to take delight in his work. He makes only a part of a thing. He becomes a mechanical contrivance himself. It is an evil condition. He loses joy in his work. Do lawyers, doctors and teachers find delight in thinking—in eager search after the best that has been thought and said? It has not been my experience that they do. Rarely do we find a man out of college working eagerly.

### GREATEST WORK OF TEACHERS.

"The greatest work the teacher can do is to give her pupils living faith in the power and worth of education. If she succeeds she has done her chief work. Nineteenths of the parents believe education is useful for the money it will bring. I don't gainsay them. But by education I don't mean shrewdness or smartness. The chances for a college man to succeed are 250 to 1 as compared with less fortunate of his fellows. Only growing minds can educate. Doctors do more by education than by administering pills. Disease is largely due to filth—physical dirt and filthy minds. Discovery of infection has overcome many diseases.

"We must educate by example. All of us are imitators. Living in a free country is not freedom. No man is free who does not free himself from within. It is the noble throbbing after God and truth which help us to better ourselves and one another."

## Training in Obedience.

BY SISTER M. V. T.

The chief essential in the right training of children is to teach them the habit of obedience. If parents and teachers fail to inculcate in their children the habit of obedience, their training is a failure.

A child's obedience should first of all be cheerful. Commands must be given which the children will feel requires the exercise of self-denial. Let the obedience be prompt. Delay or hesitation is, so far as it goes, disobedience, and if afterwards the child submits, still the act of obedience must be regarded as imperfect and incomplete.

Obedience should also be uniform. The principle must predominate, else will the child's conduct vary with every change of temper. If at one time it cheerfully obeys, again the most reasonable command may be answered by sullen obstinacy.

Obedience should be the result of principle, not inducement. Establish the habit of obedience so firmly in the child's mind that it shall obey as a matter of course, without question or inducement.

Accustom the children to obey your commands. Be uniform in your treatment—not lenient at one time and severe at another. Of course, it is understood that your commands will be reasonable. Always speak to the children kindly, but at the same time firmly, and without any persuasion, threat, or promise annexed, that they may acquire the habit of doing what they are told simply because they have been told to do it.

Win the children's love and confidence. Love begets love, and if you would have them love you, they must feel that you love them—that you are deeply interested in their welfare—that you sympathize with all their wants and feelings, joys and griefs. Love will make obedience easy and pleasant, and a word or a frown will do more as punishment, when it is necessary, than the use of the rod or strap under other circumstances.

Children should also be taught that God requires them to obey their parents and teachers, and it is one of His commandments. This cultivates conscience, and helps to make obedience willing and sincere.

If habits of disobedience are confirmed, they will lead children to disobey the laws of the nation, as well as the laws of God. Young and old must yield a cheerful obedience to law. God requires it; the peace of the neighborhood, the good of society, the character, even the soul's salvation, are all connected with it.

Parents and teachers must govern themselves. The first trouble with a child should be managed with great care. Few words should be used, and much dependence placed on a calm, decided tone of the voice. When the child is conquered, and yields obedience, reason kindly and forgive at once. Treat every offense in the same way, until the child feels at last that it must yield obedience.

But do not be unreasonable with children. To have nothing but rules and regulations forever sounding in their ears, soon breaks the spirit, sours the temper, and destroys the will. Of course, rules are necessary, especially in the school room, but they should be as few as possible, wisely selected, and carefully enforced.

In training children, it is wise not to consult their wishes, or, at least, seldom to do it. This may seem hard, but in the end it will work for good in the charac-

ter of the child. If allowed always to choose for itself it must often suffer great unhappiness from choosing what it cannot have, like the little girl who cried for the moon.

Never promise a reward for obedience. This is a great mistake in the training of children. Let it be understood by the child that obedience is right, and that nothing else could possibly be expected of it.

If the child wilfully disobeys its parents and teachers, punishment must follow instantly. But the dispositions of children are so various that it is impossible to fix on any punishment that would be adapted to all cases. The rod or the strap is not always the best correction, and if used at all it should be used sparingly, for any one punishment loses its effect, at least partially, if it be too often repeated.

Parents and teachers must work in harmony together, for the right results. While the teacher labors to teach the children obedience, the parents should follow on the same lines, if possible. It is very important for the parents and the teacher to co-operate with each other. Above all things they should depend on the grace of God in the work.

## Suggestions for a Talk to Boys.

From the "VIATORIAN."

A few weeks ago while curiously coning over some of the weekly papers that had accumulated on the exchange desk of the *Viatorian*, I came upon a short editorial in the *Catholic Citizen* of Milwaukee entitled "A Bad Style of Youth." I remember that a friend of mine who is much traveled and judicious in his appreciation of what he sees, told me he had never detested war so much as after seeing Verestchagen's war pictures. It is likely that boys will despise rowdism all the more heartily if they but take the trouble to look at the portrait recently drawn of the unfortunately too common type of the young "tough." The editor well expresses his contempt for that sort of a human thing by calling him "it." Here is the *Citizen's* picture of the species that often adorns the rogues' gallery:

"There is a type of the raw, overgrown boy that needs to be pen pictured for his own good. Let him look upon himself and see whether he is an object to admire. His face wears an expression of constant leering. If his mouth is not occupied with the nasty weed, it is relaxed to that half-open condition which signifies gawky attention. This type occupies itself with noticing what it can guffaw at in the attitude, or manner, or dress, or appearance of passing humanity. 'Get onto that feller's hat,' or 'Will youse mind that gait of him?' are its characteristic expressions. It jeers at the hobbling old man, cracks addlepated jokes at the lame, and roars with pleasure at the victim of accident. It is naturally inclined to loaf about and sight see, shambling along when it has to move, and staring or gaping or leering as it goes.

"So far as it has any ambition, it prides itself in comic songs and low theatricals, rehashing witless gags and always beginning to admire something when it kicks its heels in a clog.

"The youth who admires right objects, who has earnestness in place of leering disposition, whose mouth is not tobacco stained, whose makeup is devoid of all the suggestive signs of the tough or the dude, is the present

promise of a good and worthy man. But often the right dispositioned youth is not happily placed when he is surrounded by types of the raw boy. It amuses its jeering self in noticing him, nicknaming him and seeking to ridicule all the right ways which he pursues different from its cowboy customs. If they could but know it, these ill-mannered youths are doing themselves the greatest degree of injury by failing to look seriously at matters and people about them, and holding back their leering laughter to turn it upon their own folly."

The week after the above was published it was quoted by the *Michigan Catholic* with an editorial comment entitled: "The Children of the Toilers." Is not the prominence given this subject by serious men rather striking? It certainly emphasizes their well directed effort to abate a nuisance. As we all should, in order to avoid pitfalls and to improve ourselves profit by whatever is written or said for the right guidance of our years of youth, I will ask you to read carefully the following remarks by the editor of the *Michigan Catholic*:

"The boy who assumes the rowdyism of the 'tough' and the habits of the wayward will develop into a man of worthlessness. Worthlessness of character and uselessness in life will mark his career from the dawn of manhood to the grave. Is there anything more weary to people of advanced years than to see a boy playing the role of premature manhood towards his elders, and making himself conspicuous by his loud-mouthedness in public, and by his want of respect to superiors? A youth who will strut down the street with a cigarette perched between his teeth, at an acute angle, and who passes his leisure hours in pool rooms and the company of evil-minded companions will never amount to anything in life.

*"Respect for parents and those who are charged with the moral and intellectual instruction of youth should be characteristic of a well-behaved, good-living boy. To assist his father and mother, when requested, is the duty of every boy. If parents are poor, honest and honorable labor in shop, store, or factory, performed by a boy when of legal age is dutiful and is necessary to help in providing for the household. But, above all, every boy should be ambitious to obtain an education, and he can do so, even if he performs a day's work of ten hours.*

"Many of the nation's greatest and best citizens worked in their boyhood on a farm, or in a factory, to assist their parents. They accepted every advantage offered to obtain an education and to improve their mind by study after work. The youth of today have advantages of education which the boy of thirty years ago had not.

"To be God-fearing, modest-spoken, and obedient to parents is the duty of all boys, whether they are born into riches or enter the world surrounded by poverty. Purple and fine linen, and a mansion to dwell in, do not make the best boys. The greatest citizens of the republic sprang from a lowly environment, wearing the mark of toil for a coat of arms and the implements of industry for the armorial bearings.

"The children of the toilers are the life guards of the nation. The offspring of the masses is the strength of the republic."

**JUST A MOMENT**—Have you remitted your subscription payment for the current year. If not, kindly make it a point to do so at the earliest opportunity.

## A Talk to the Class on Avoiding Bad Habits.

By A. R. W.

There is an eastern story of a fly that lighted on the edge of Abdallah's goblet, took a sip, and flew away. It came again, and as it was not brushed away it grew bolder and bolder. With each sip the fly became larger, and at last Abdallah perceived that it was a man. He began to eat Abdallah's meat. The youth drove him away, but he came again, wearing beautiful clothes. One day Abdallah was found lying dead, his face black, and on his throat the print of a mighty finger as large as a man's hand. The fly had become a giant.

That is a picture of the ease and rapidity with which bad habits grow. And after they are fixed upon us, it is the hardest thing in the world to uproot them.

Dr. Peloubet tells of an old tavern that was changed to a dwelling house, the bar-room being transformed into a parlor. The building was used as a dwelling for twenty years, but even at the end of that time, if the parlor were closed for a few days, it would smell of the old rum and tobacco.

A father once taught his son this lesson: "Drive a nail into this board, John," he commanded, and the boy obeyed. "Now pull it out again." The boy did so. "Now, John, pull out the hole." Ah, you may think you have conquered a habit, pulled it up by the root; but the hole is there, and it is so easy to fall into the old ways.

Endless patience is needed, if we would break off our bad habits. Remember John Boyle O'Reilly's rhyme:

"How shall I a habit break?  
As you did that habit make.  
As you gathered, you must lose;  
As you yielded, now refuse.  
Thread by thread the strands we twist  
Till they bind us, hand and wrist;  
Thread by thread the patient hand  
Must untwine, ere free we stand.

This is true, and we must be patient and persistent with ourselves and with all that are trying to undo the past. And yet we must not make the mistake of the foolish man who set to work, one winter morning, to scrape the frost from his window panes. He complained to a passing neighbor, "It keeps coming on one pane as fast as I get it off of another." "Why, man," said the neighbor, "leave your windows alone and kindle a fire, and the frost will come off all at once and without any of your trouble."

You are like that foolish man if you try to break off your bad habits one at a time and by your own efforts. Build in your heart the fire of love, crowd your life full of warmth and good cheer and brightness, and the bad habits will disappear as the frost melts off the window pane. Patience is needed still, and lots of it. The fire may go out. You may need to rekindle it, again and again. In any event, as O'Reilly says, you must work as hard to get rid of a habit as to get the habit in the first place. But work on the heart and not on the habit. Crowd out the evil by crowding in the good.

## An Explanation of the Parts of the Mass.

### *The Preparatory Part of the Mass.*

1. Standing at the foot of the altar, the priest recites a PREPARATORY PRAYER alternately with the servers, who answer in the name of the people. It consists chiefly of the 42d Psalm. It expresses the desire to offer up the holy sacrifice, and confidence in the help of God. It is followed by the CONFITEOR, or confession of sin, and other prayers for the mercy of God.

2. The priest ascends the steps, kisses the altar in token of reverence and says the INTROIT (entrance prayer) on the epistle side of the altar. It consists, in the rule, of passages from Holy Writ and refers to the Mass of the day.

3. Going to the middle of the altar, the priest recites alternately with the servers the KYRIE ELEISON, CHRISTE ELEISON, KYRIE ELEISON (Lord, have mercy on us), in which each of the three divine persons is three times invoked for mercy. It is generally followed by the GLORIA (glory be to God on high), the words of joy sung by the angels at the birth of Christ.

4. Turning to the people, the priest greets them with the words of blessing: DOMINUS VOBISCU (the Lord be with you), to which the servers answer in the name of all, ET CUM SPIRITU TUO (and with thy spirit). Thereupon the priest goes to the epistle side of the altar and in the words OREMUS (let us pray) he expects all present to join in prayer. Collecting, as it were, the INTENTIONS OF ALL PRESENT, the priest says the COLLECTS, and is answered by the servers AMEN (May these petitions be granted).

5. Then he reads the EPISTLE (letter), because this part of Mass is generally taken from one of the letters of the apostles. Shortly after the epistle follows the GOSPEL, a passage taken from one of the four gospels. Before reading it the priest passes to the other side of the altar, to indicate that the good tidings of the gospel passed from the Jews to the Gentiles. All who are present arise and stand during the gospel, as a sign of their willingness to follow the teachings of Christ.

6. The NICENE CREED (profession of faith), follows the gospel on Sundays and certain feast days. (Council of Nice, in the year 325.)

### *The First Principal Part of Mass, the Offertory.*

1. THE PRIEST TAKES BREAD AND WINE and OFFERS them up to God. They are thus blessed and prepared for the consecration, when they will be changed into the body and blood of Jesus Christ. As was done at the Last Supper, a few drops of water are mixed with the wine. This ceremony reminds us of the blood and water that flowed from the side of Our Saviour, as well as of the union of the divine and human nature in Jesus Christ.

2. The priest WASHES HIS HANDS to show that when offering up or assisting at this holy sacrifice we should be pure from sin. It also reminds us of the washing of the feet before the institution of the Holy Eucharist. In the words ORATE FRATRES (pray, my brethren) he exhorts all to prayer, that God may graciously accept the sacrifice about to be offered up. For

the same intention he then says certain prayers in a SUBDUE TONE OF VOICE (secreta).

### *The Second Principal Part of Mass, the Consecration.*

1. This part is introduced by the PREFACE, a solemn hymn of praise and thanksgiving. It begins with the words sursum corda (your hearts to God), and ends with the sanctus (holy, holy, holy), in which the priest unites his prayer with the hymns of the angelic choirs.

2. Then follows the CANON, or rule. It is so called because this part of Mass down to the PATER NOSTER is always the same, with the slight exception that on certain great feasts the mystery of the day is mentioned in some of the prayers. It is said in a low voice, and consists of prayers for the whole Church, its rulers, all its members, especially those who are present, but, most of all, for the faithful for whom the priest says the Mass. Then the intercession of the saints is invoked and the bread and wine are blessed.

3. Then comes the most sacred part of the whole Mass. The priest takes the bread he has blessed and pronounces over it the words of CONSECRATION, by which the bread is changed into the living body of Jesus Christ. The priest kneels in adoration, and then raises the sacred Host, so that the faithful may see it and adore their God and Saviour really present on the altar. The same is done with the chalice when the wine has been changed into the precious blood of Jesus Christ. The consecration is the real act of sacrifice during Mass.

4. After the consecration the priest prays to God that He may graciously accept the sacrifice for the welfare of His people, he prays FOR THE DEAD, and then to the blessed in heaven, that he may be united with them in eternal bliss.

### *The Third Principal Part of Mass: The Communion.*

This part of Mass begins with the "PATER NOSTER," the Lord's Prayer. It is said aloud by the priest. It contains everything that we can ask of God in prayer.

2. Following the example of Christ, Who broke the bread at the Last Supper, the priest BREAKS THE SACRED HOST, and drops a small part of it into the chalice, saying, "May the peace of the Lord be always with you."

3. Then comes the AGNUS DEI (Lamb of God). It is said three times, and serves, with some prayers that follow it, as IMMEDIATE PREPARATION for Holy Communion.

4. After having thrice said the Domine, non sum dignus, "O Lord, I am not worthy," the priest communicates, taking first the sacred Host, then the precious blood. The faithful who do not receive Our Lord actually should at least make a SPIRITUAL COMMUNION.

5. PRAYERS OF THANKSGIVING after Communion. Then comes the Ite missa est, "Depart, Mass is over;" or the Benedicamus Domino, "Let us praise the Lord;" or the Requiescant in pace, "May they rest in peace." The priest gives his BLESSING to the congregation, except in Masses for the dead, and the sacrifice of the Mass is concluded with the GOSPEL of St. John, that announces the Incarnation of the Son of God.

During SOLEMN HIGH MASS WITH DEACON AND SUBDEACON, the altar, missal, the bread and wine, the priest, deacon, subdeacon, the servers and the congregation are BLESSED WITH INCENSE and thus, as it were, consecrated

and made worthy of assisting at or celebrating the great mystery of the altar.

**NOTE.**—Mass is said, and has been said from the earliest times, in the LATIN language. It was the language of Rome, from which city the Gospel spread over the whole earth. The use of Latin has always been retained, because that language does not change. Thus it manifests the unity of the Church and of its sacred ceremonies, and helps to preserve them. (Cath. Catechism-Benziger Bros.)

## A Teacher's Explanation of Childe Harold--One Result.

By Sister M. Fides (Mercy Convent, McKeesport, Pa.)

"Well, truth is stranger than fiction," said a friend of mine—an enthusiastic young teacher—as she laughingly placed in my hand that most wonderful of creations—a boy's composition. I glanced at the page and smiled as I dimly perceived the drift.

"Don't you recognize it?" she said.

"No; wait—say, can it be that this is an attempt at Byron's—

"Yes," she laughed interrupting me, "an attempt at the reproduction of Byron's 'Childe Harold.' Alas for my explanations, my elaborate synopsis!"

I read again the boy's composition—then I, too, laughed, laughed heartily.

This was the cause:

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### THE TEACHER'S EXPLANATION AND SYNOPSIS.

Now, boys and girls, this is composition afternoon; let us try to combine literature with composition. You have been studying about the poet Byron, you have read his Prisoner of Chillon and his Mazeppa: to-day I shall tell you about another of Byron's works, a larger one—the one considered his masterpiece. It is called 'Childe Harold's Pilgrimage.' 'Childe' is simply an old style word for 'Sir' or 'Knight,' hence 'Knight Harold's Pilgrimage'; pilgrimage is, as you know, a journeying, a wandering from place to place.

Knight Harold, then, leaves England, his native land, and the land of his deep, yet bitter love. Scarcely have its shores receded from view ere his soul pours itself forth in that now world-famous song, 'My Native Land, Good Night.'

*Adieu! adieu! my native shore  
Fades o'er the waters blue,  
The night winds sigh, the breakers roar  
And shrieks the wild sea mew.*

*Welcome, welcome, ye dark blue waves,  
And when ye fail my sight  
Welcome ye deserts and ye caves—  
My native land—good night.*

Byron—for his hero Childe Harold is but himself in thinnest disguise—reaches Spain, touches at all points of interest in Spain, crosses the Alps, ascends the Rhine, visits Rome, Florence, Venice—but this is not all, thousands of tourists have done the same, and just here is the point that I wish particularly to emphasize—Byron visited those old-world places of interest, of scenic, biographic, or historic interest, and no traveller visiting those places since that time can ever forget that Byron visited them. His lines have been the vehicle by which

those scenes live in expression. I myself have experienced this and the corroboration of hundreds of others has confirmed me in my opinion.

When we stand by the sea, and the breaking wave laughs at our adjectives, instinctively we find relief in quoting Byron's "Apostrophe to the Ocean":

*Roll on thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll!*

*Thou image of eternity, thou throne  
Of the invisible—dread, fathomless,—alone.*

There are many songs about the sea; the sea permeates literature, and these song thoughts throng the mind as we look at the sea; but tho' other lines partly and collaterally express what, on such occasions, we feel, Byron's lines fully and directly express what we feel. Thousands of hearts prosaic, troubled, cynical, reverent—of every phase of every human feeling—stand silent in awe by ocean's overwhelming grandeur; but a poet has stood there a seer, a voice, and the thousands find relief in echo. Yes, we too accord to that deep and dark blue ocean full permission to roll and—it rolls; "dread, fathomless, alone," we repeat and the breaking wave does not laugh at us.

Again, should we visit Spain and walk within the Alhambra's tragic halls—Byron has been there, Byron's lines will express what we feel.

Stand upon the awful field of Waterloo, Byron has been there—so has Victor Hugo—and we feel with their feelings, speak with their words.

Up the Rhine and behold:

*The castled crags of Drachenfeldt  
From o'er the wide and winding Rhine.*

*But one thing want these banks of Rhine—  
Thy gentle hand to clasp in mine.*

In the last two verses of that stanza we have expressed the deep loneliness of the wanderer; the heart in touch with the beauty of nature, glad, too, in a surface way, but essentially sad. That, too, is a feeling old as the human heart and Byron has given it expression.

*I stood in Venice, on the Bridge of Sighs—  
A palace and a prison on each hand.*

Go to Florence, and—

*In Santa Croce's holy precincts lie  
Ashes which make it holier; dust which is  
Even in itself an immortality.*

Go to Rome, and—

*O, Rome! my country, city of the soul,  
The Orphans of the heart must turn to thee,  
Lone mother of dead empires.*

Stand in the catacombs, in St. Peter's, in the Coliseum,—Byron has been there, Byron has said for us all that we wish to say.

For your next composition, I will point out for you some biographical allusions in Childe Harold; also some historical illusions, so that before beginning to read the poem you may have some idea as to its subject matter.

If this study does not appeal to you, you have, of course, the option of writing on a subject of your own selection.

In conclusion, I will quote for you one or two lines from the last stanza of the Pilgrimage. When we

stand by ocean, when we turn away from the Rhine, when we stifle down the true feelings of the heart and smile in the hour of partings, when we see a dear face and know that the years shall lapse ere we again behold it; when we turn from the home of childhood, careless apparently, world-inured perhaps—yet innately a poet—we say with Byron:

*Farewell! a word which must be and has been  
A sound which makes us linger, yet—farewell.*

And this was the effect:

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#### WHAT THE BOY WROTE.

"One time there was a man by the name of Byron—he was a poet.

"Byron loved England with a deep and bitter love; when he was in the ship going away, he began to sing a song about My Native Land, Good Night.

"Byron wanted to write something so that when you were there you would know that he had been there; so he went to Spain and he sat there for a while and he wrote some poetry about Spain and he left it there so that when anybody goes there he reads that poetry and he feels that way.

"Then he crossed the Alps and went up the Rhine, and when he was looking at the river he was glad, and he had everything but one thing and he wanted that—and that's the way with us all.

"Byron has written some grand things about the ocean. Other writers nearly get there as to what they want to say when they see the ocean. Byron gets there altogether—so he's the best train on that line and most people take him.

"If you go to Rome, or Florence, or Venice, or any of those places you read about—you meet Byron: and if you want to say anything just grand about those places, and you can't say it—why, Byron will say it for you.

"I like that horse story Mazeppa better than I like Childe Harold."

—JAMES HUNTER.

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"You were entirely too high for your boy," I remarked in the first subsidence.

"I spoke to my average class capacity," she replied. "The others grasped it; this is the only absurdity, and," she added, laughing as she again scanned the page, "this has it."

"True; the Byron-amoeba is there, but it will not evolve—not on *this* planet."



#### Use and Care of Children's Voices.

F. E. Howard, Director of Music, Bridgeport, Conn.

How many teachers have ever given serious study and thought to the physiology of the voice, or what we called its culture? A very small number, perhaps. How, then, can we expect good voice management, vocal training, and so on, in school singing?

Until quite recently no writer on the physiology of the voice has said more in reference to children than to give a few brief statements regarding the growth of the larynx, which ceases at the age of 6 years, the comparative length of the vocal bands in children and adults, and the change at mutation. To this should be added that from the age of 6 years to the time of puberty, the cartilages, or walls of the larynx, are constantly gaining in firmness, and that the vocal bands and their contral-

ing muscles are during the same period gaining in strength.

The child's voice must be so used in singing that the physical apparatus concerned in its production shall gain in mobility and general health, and this applies equally to the voice training of either child or adult. But, independently of all physical or physiological considerations, the voice which comes from healthy, normal organs should be good in tone. The more it is used (so it is not unduly fatigued), the more beautiful should be the tone. Many voice teachers, perhaps most, ignoring physiological considerations, work with this principle or thought ever before them. They are successful, too, for if the conditions are not right, the tone will not be; hence, the conditions must be changed until the right adjustment and balance of parts is hit upon. It may be added that no amount of scientific knowledge will enable a teacher to train voice properly who is not guided in his work by the same artistic sense.

Now, when we take into account the delicacy of the child's vocal bands, the weakness of the muscles which act upon them, and the lack of rigidity in the laryngeal cartilages, the physical reasons for insisting on soft tone are apparent; while any one who is musical enough to distinguish the sound of a trombone from that of a flute will be able to detect a difference in tone quality between brass and wood. From whatever side the subject is approached, the first and most important truth in regard to the use of the child voice in singing is that loud singing is a musical and a physical barbarity.

Soft singing is a very elastic term. The teacher who permits or urges her pupils to sing in a series of war whoops that may be heard a block away will scarcely entertain the same conception of soft tone as those whose love of noise is less active.

Technically, children should sing with what is known as the head tone, and they should sing softly enough to produce it. This tone is absolutely free from the reed quality. It is flutey, thin, clear, perfectly smooth. It is not in the least like the adult singing tone. It is produced by the vibration of less than the entire substance of the vocal bands. Using this head-register, or tone, the child of 6 years sings very softly; as he grows older the voice increases in power, but not rapidly. Even at 14 years of age the lower notes must be quite soft to secure this light action at the vocal bands.

This for the physical side of the topic. But how about the essence of song, the music, and the voice training, which is accomplished only as the soul of the singer utters itself through the medium of tone? To make school music a living factor in the life of the pupil, a constant influence for good, a source of real spiritual growth, fitting the boy or girl for the enjoyment of civilized life in a way that no other training can quite parallel, is the real object of the earnest teacher of school music.

There are those who are so intent on thoughts like these that they are wholly impatient at the mention of the physical or physiological phase of singing, but the school teacher who does not, either through knowledge or instinct, secure that use of the voice from the child which is natural, and therefore beautiful, had better recognize that noise is not music, and that bad, coarse singing stunts the growth of musical sensibility and love of the beautiful as certainly as cold, and dirt, and poor food checks physical growth. The physical side of voice management must be understood and heeded, if school music is to become a factor of any value in education.

## Pictures for Language Stories

These pictures are to be cut out and mounted on cardboard. In this form they are convenient for passing to pupils who are to make oral stories about the pictures after being allowed some time for observation and conversation.



ONE CAT'S FAMILY.



FEEDING THE LAMB.



A RIDE ON BROTHER JACK.



PLAYING THE PIANO.



PLAYING SCHOOL.



TOM'S PONY.

## Language and Reading

### Awaken in Pupils a Desire to Read

FROM SARAH L. ARNOLD'S "READING: HOW TO TEACH IT."

The school differs from the home and the kindergarten in that its allotted tasks are evidently determined by a motive and plan outside the child's comprehension. In many cases this must be so. The lessons which involve the mastery of the symbols used in reading, writing and number, or the drill and practice necessary to attain skill in music or drawing or writing, have no self-evident goal for the child. So many lines, so many letters, so many problems, he attempts because the teacher says so, and in his new universe the teacher is supreme. At home he has always chosen more or less; so, too, in the kindergarten his interest and choice determined the story or the game or the topic of conversation. He has delighted in building houses, modeling balls, weaving mats, playing games—and all, so far as he knew, for his own immediate pleasure and accomplishment. Other results, to him unknown, were of course secured. He builded better than he knew. But in every case he rejoiced in some immediate accomplishment which he desired.

In many cases the decreed exercises of the school are meaningless and purposeless to the beginner. Such exercises easily degenerate into dull and fruitless routine, indifferent and profitless to teacher and pupil alike. To arouse desire and awaken conscious motive is the teacher's most important work, and in teaching reading it should receive first consideration. She therefore, after securing such freedom and co-operation as promise a fertile soil for her seed-planting, calls the children about her to explain the purpose of the lessons which will till their days.

Perhaps she reads to them a story which they like, a new story which they have never heard. When she reaches the interesting climax she pauses to say: "I haven't time to read the rest of the story now. How I wish you could read! Then you might take the book and read the story yourselves. Would you not like to learn to read, so that you could read stories like these?"

In Hugh Miller's graphic description of his childhood experience in reading this element of purpose and desire is strongly emphasized. "The process of learning and acquiring had been a dark one," he says, recalling his struggles with letters and syllables. He "slowly mastered" these "in humble confidence in the awful wisdom of the schoolmistress, not knowing whither it tended," when (as a member of the Bible class—"in the highest form") his mind "awoke to the meaning of that most delightful of all narratives, the story of Joseph. Was there ever such a discovery made before?"

"Such testimony might be repeated a thousand times over by our pupils of today—if they were able to describe their common experience.

It was the first vision of the goal that gave meaning, motive and conscious gladness to Hugh Miller's study. Such motive and such meaning should pervade the earliest lessons in reading, and should be consciously recognized by pupil as well as teacher. We repeat, then: The teacher's first effort, after becoming acquainted with her children, is to awaken this conscious desire to read and to secure intelligent co-operation in her exercises.

One teacher suggests writing upon the board some sentence which has been whispered to her by the children, and then calling an older child from another room to read the secret. This is done again and again, until the children are eager to share the power which their comrade possesses and turn gladly to the tasks required of them, that they may the sooner reach their goal.

There is a wide difference between such teaching and the routine drill which does not enlist the child's desire. The enthusiastic bicyclist would smile if asked to exchange his morning ride to the city for an hour's exercise upon a fixed "bicycle exerciser" in the back hall. Nor could the most skillful pedagog convince him that the exercise involved in making the wheel go round is as valuable as the spin which carries him to his destination thru the fresh morning air along roads bordered with flowered fields. Yet the contrast is no more marked than that between the task of the syllable-pronouncer who obediently performs his meaningless labor and that of the child who with conscious and earnest desire sets himself to learn to read.

### Avenues of Language-Expression

(Miss Della Justine Long in a paper read before the Elementary Department of the N. E. A., 1904.)

Altho there is a universal theory that language-training below the high school should come principally thru the work and the life of the school as a whole, a large part of the time assigned to English is still devoted to the study of grammar. That the reward of much of our grammar study is so slight is largely due to the fact that our English grammar still rests on a Latin conception. The inflections have largely disappeared from English, and still many grammars continue to regard them as an important element. When the time comes for the study of the relations between words, sentences, etc., we should be able to presuppose a considerable power of abstraction in the pupils. Much of the grammar prepared for the grades nevertheless goes beyond the power of students below the high school. That the study of the science does not assure ability to use language is shown by the meagreness of language, both spoken and written, of students who have been brought up on grammar, but who have not been accustomed to express themselves freely or to hear good, efficient English. The premature study of structure, moreover, given before experience with realities has been sufficient to develop interest in structure, prejudices pupils against a study which should have value later. This does not imply a disparagement of grammar study. I only mean to say in this connection that my observation in the intermediate and grammar grades has not made clear the relation between a knowledge of

the technique of language and a full, free development of power to use language.

There is, to be sure, more need of form study in the upper grades, since the increasing field of thought brings need of understanding the possibilities of language for expressing finer differences of meaning. But this knowledge of structure can come only thru considering the word or sentence in the closest possible relation to the thought it conveys. If the child could once understand that he studies the relations between words because he can thereby make them a more efficient medium for his own use, not because there is a system of relations inherent in the words themselves, the feeling of remoteness, of unreality, about this technical study would surely be lessened.

In the upper grades literature and art have a still larger place in bringing in both the thought of the great world and models of perfect expression, and often the poem or picture, when it has served this purpose, is made the basis for testing some bit of technical knowledge just referred to. For several reasons this is an unfortunate use of a work of art. There is a great dash to the feelings in dropping suddenly from the inspiration of something beautiful to a survey of the outer form of that beauty. To make a list of nouns from a stirring poem not only diverts the purpose of the poem, but brings a disfavor upon the nouns which they do not deserve; for interest in them can come only thru learning of their use, and this is to be discovered in the very act of their service, not in disembodied lists.

When pupils come to a conscious scrutiny of language, the cultivation of a feeling for the word that gives just the shade of meaning or the full force of an action; learning to appreciate the greater strength in directness; the habit of clear imaging; recalling parts read which have made special appeal—all this goes with the discussion of acts and motives and the use of personal experience in interpretation. The habit of imaging is most important in the development of language thru literature. This means, of course, not merely visualizing, but includes all the unconscious motor expressions so characteristic of children.

At this time, when verbal memory is at its hight (that is, in the intermediate grades), the beginning of a permanent literary store may well be made, but there is a dissipation of energy in "learning by heart" anything that does not come within the true meaning of that phrase. If we could reduce the number of fragments committed to memory, choosing instead a smaller number of entire poems, we should, perhaps, be surer that they would last as a permanent source of pleasure. A small girl of my acquaintance innocently alluded to the "memory jams" she had been learning, little appreciating the fitness of her phrase.

If we were to sum up our perplexity over the written work, would it not be that the results show perfunctory effort? There are, of course, always special cases where genuine interest is unmistakable, but, on the whole, it is clear that the aim of the written work is to make the use of correct form habitual. When we attempt to explain the lack of spontaneity back of the written pages, we are again confronted by the futility of pursuing language culture thru the composition as a means in itself. This is made plain by the fact that when the child recognizes

a genuine reason for his writing, it becomes a genuine effort on his part. This does not exclude the observance of correct form, but makes it a subordinate part of the aim. So long as there is a real interest in the writing from the child's point of view, the subject is a minor matter. But writing for the sake of writing, on the theory that "practice makes perfect," precludes the motive which alone give language value. There must be some outcome beyond the page written; for example, the letter that is really mailed to someone with whom the writer has a personal relation of some kind, not merely an artificial, literary relation.

Individuality develops rapidly during the grammar-grade period. New interests are springing up continually. The subject assigned to an entire class appeals less and less, which adds to the problem of selecting subject-matter that shall meet with a genuine response. This suggests in part the solution of the difficulty, namely, that we reduce the amount of written work. In support of this is the fact that pupils at this age are naturally conservative. Free, easy expression is no longer characteristic. And while the self-consciousness and the shyness and awkwardness of expression are quite apparent, the increase of mental activity and of assimilation are not always so clearly recognized. It is a time of absorption and storing up, and all that is assimilated will appear sooner or later in increase of individual strength.

Summing this up, the communication of the native interests, worked out thru all the activities of the elementary school, is the natural basis of the language; and the educative value of language-training rests on a recognition of the fact that the thought-content and the interest in communicating or receiving that content alone give meaning to language. The primary aim in the language of the elementary school is the development of power to say freely what is pressing forward for expression in the child's mind. The aim in the study of structure is that language may become a more efficient means for this expression.

The basis of all language-growth is oral expression. This is but saying that language is not merely a system of symbols which the child is to regard as already organized outside of his own life, but that is a part of his own mind and heart which is to grow as he grows.

## Lessons on Word-Form

We have now come to recognize in our teaching that knowing a thing is not equivalent to doing it, and that knowing does not always result in doing; so the day is past when the study of rules of grammar is depended upon for fixing correct habits of speech. The child's forms of expression are fixed at home first thru the pattern which is set him by his father and mother and sisters and brothers, and second, by the constant repetition of this form. The habit of correct expression must be fixed in the same way. The teacher must set the pattern for the children, and then occasion the use of the correct form. The following exercises illustrate the manner in which this can best be done.

### Exercises in Fixing Correct Forms

(To correct the use of two negatives, as, "I ain't got no

pencil;" "I didn't have no time." Exercises given to primary grades.)

Teacher.—Today I will play that I am borrowing. I will ask you to lend me something. Please lend me your knife.

Pupil.—I ain't got no knife.

"Johnny, please let me take your knife."

"I haven't got no knife."

"Katie, please lend me your knife."

"I have no knife."

"Katie's answer was right. I like the way in which she said it. Listen; I will ask her again. Katie, please lend me your knife."

"I have no knife."

"Johnny, please let me take your knife."

"I have no knife"

"Please let me take your watch. Please let me take your umbrella."

"I have no umbrella."

"Please lend me your pen."

"I have no pen."

"Will you give me an orange?"

"I have no orange."

"Let Katie take your book."

The continuation of this exercise makes it necessary that every child use the correct form. The teacher should emphasize the correct form rather than the incorrect, calling attention to the one who gives the right answer and not the wrong one.

(To fix the correct form of the pronoun used in the nominative case.)

Teacher.—John and Peter may run across the room. John, tell me what you and Peter did.

Answer.—Me and Peter run across the room.

"Peter, tell me what you and John did."

"I and John ran across the room."

"The polite way is to name John before you name yourself. Now tell me again."

"John and I ran across the room."

"Now, John, Peter told me very nicely. Listen while he tells me again. Now you may answer the question. What did you and Peter do?"

"Peter and I ran across the room."

"Kate, in what class are you?"

"I am in the highest class."

"In what class is Mary?"

"Mary is in the highest class."

"Katie, tell me in what class you and Mary are."

"Mary and me are in the highest class."

"Do you remember how Peter told me who ran across the room? Peter, tell us again. Now Kate, tell me who are in the highest class."

"Mary and I are in the highest class."

"Who lives on 10th Street? John, Jack, Mary? Mary, you may tell me what three children live on 10th Street."

"John, Jack and I live on 10th Street."

"Susie and Belle may take these pencils."

"Susie, what girls have my pencils?"

"Belle and I have your pencils."

"Belle, what girls have my pencils?"

"Susie and I have your pencils."

This exercise will need to be repeated many times in the ordinary schoolroom, but the children never tire of

the practice when varied as above suggested. The right form is emphasized, and the children are required to use it over and over again. This accomplishes much more than the repetition of a rule. The use of the right form becomes habitual only thru practice. Written exercises in filling blanks may be assigned after the right ideal of the form is fixed in the minds of the children.

The mistakes which occur in the use of irregular verbs are always to be found in the use of the past tense and the perfect participles. There is no need of drilling upon all the several forms. Center the attention upon those where the difficulty is found.

Teacher (writing on the board).—Mary, what am I doing?"

"You are writing on the board."

"John, what did I do?"

"You wrote on the board."

"Kate, what have I done?"

"You have written on the board."

"Mary, tell Kate what I did on the board."

"Miss A. wrote on the board."

"Susie, tell Kate what I have done."

"Miss A. has written on the board."

"John, I will give you my chalk. What did I do?"

"You gave me your chalk."

"Kate, what have I done?"

"You have given your chalk to John."

"Susie, what did I do?"

"You gave your chalk to John."

"See this piece of paper. What am I doing?"

"You are tearing the paper."

"What did I do?"

"You tore the paper."

"What have I done?"

"You have torn the paper."

"Mary, tell Kate what I did."

"Miss A. tore the paper."

"Kate, tell Susie what I have done."

"Miss A. has torn the paper."

"See the crayon. What am I doing?"

"Your are breaking the crayon."

"What did I do?"

"You broke the crayon."

"What have I done?"

"You have broken the crayon."

"Tell John what I have done."

"Miss A. has broken the crayon."

"Tell John what I did."

"Miss A. broke the crayon."

In the above exercises the teacher must insist upon close attention to the form of the question, and exact answers. After a few such lessons, the children will become accustomed to the correct form and will observe its use in the class, and then it will be possible to call the attention of the pupil, by word or sign, to his use of the incorrect form, and such a correction will not interrupt the current of the lesson. After these exercises have been given, the teacher may insist upon the correct use in all the exercises of the day. Frequently the pupils become critics, and report any departure from the new ideal that has been presented to them. In selecting forms for drill, choose those that have been used incorrectly. Drill upon one until that form is fixed before attempting another.—Sara L. Arnold in Waymarks for Teachers.

## Correcting Language Papers

For mistakes in spelling give spelling drills rather than require the rewriting of a paper. Errors in punctuation are to be cured by careful discussion and explanation, followed by dictation exercises involving the point misunderstood. The common errors of grammar yield to a similar treatment. If the vocabulary is meager write on the board words and phrases nearly equivalent and usable in the paragraph to be written; discuss them, and suggest that pupils select from this list or make an original selection, giving reasons for the choice.

Whenever you mark an error try by a class drill or by conference with the pupil to prevent its recurrence. Each pupil should have a language notebook in which he writes matters to which he is to give attention, e.g., the words he misspells, the rules for capitals or commas he neglects to apply, the words he confuses in use, as "shall" and "will," the past tense and the past participle, the ambiguous use of the pronoun.

The teacher should have private conferences with pupils concerning the mechanism and the thought of their writing, particularly and in increasing degree the thought.

Corrections are most profitable when they come from a growing standard within the child and a desire on his part to make his ideals real. Too much correcting by the teacher or fellow pupils does harm. It is better to write anew, not rewrite, after a month or so, than to rewrite anything which the pupil has tried to do well. If due pains has been taken rewriting is a tiresome and comparatively valueless effort.

Many teachers fear to have pupils do written work which is not to be corrected by the teacher, lest the pupils fall into careless habits.

It is a great mistake to think that all work done by pupils must be criticised by the teacher. Where is the pupil's ideal of excellence? What personal interest has he to improve? What inspiration has the teacher given that exists independent of the teacher's pencil markings and lasts beyond them?

The only large incentives are (a) the interest of the pupils in their own work, (b) the fact that their classmates appreciate the degree of their success, (c) the steady interest of the teacher shown by help to do rather than by finding fault with things done.—Tarbell's Teachers' Manual.

## Neatness in Written Work

The following is a little device that has helped to secure neatness in written work. It may be used in any grade from the tiny beginners to the older ones who are ready for the intermediate grade.

Take five or six sheets of medium-weight manila cardboard 20x30 inches, or any convenient size.

With a punch make holes near the upper corners.

Put a loop of picture wire thru the holes, making the loop long enough to hang over tacks on the door or to the upper edge of the blackboard.

On the front page paste a pretty picture and a motto.

The motto may be put on with brush and ink. Mine has a picture of a jolly little boy in a toboggan cap. The motto is:

"Do your best, your very best,  
And do it every day;  
Little boy and little girl,  
That is the wisest way."

—N. H.

## Utilizing Pictures.

May I pass on to teachers who, like myself, have little artistic ability, some of my ways of gaining the end to be desired without the means?

I have gone over my school journals, and any other papers, and cut out any simple outline pictures I found.

With a bit of impression paper I copied them on large sheets of manila cardboard.

Each picture I copied several times, making number stories of them thus: One brownie + three brownies =

Some of the pictures I colored with watercolors; others I brushed in with ink.

At each corner I pasted one of the passepartout hangers and put tiny tacks along the upper edge of my blackboard. When the number work drags and "two and two are four" has lost all interest I bring my chart and hang up before them, and it is good to see how quickly the little faces brighten. Pictures cut from flower catalogs are good for such work too.  
—N. H.

## Seat Work

1. (a) Rule paper into one-inch squares. From each cut off all but one square, then all but two, all but three, etc., until only one remains. Children have thus made a fort.

- (b) Rule paper in one-inch squares and draw a flower, vegetable or anything as directed, in each square.

2. (a) Gather autumn leaves; mount in booklets.  
(b) Cut out and color autumn leaves; mount in booklets.

3. Write these directions on board and let children follow them. Make a chair with legs two inches high, seat one inch wide, back three inches high.

4. Make a barn with roof six inches long and two inches wide. Make it four inches high. Make the door two inches high and two inches wide.

Note: It is well to draw the chair and barn on board at first, placing figures on back, legs, etc., to more plainly illustrate what is desired.

5. Make picture scrap-books.
6. Write on tablet backs or slates, or if your desks are not varnished write on them, with wet chalk, the new or difficult words in the spelling, reading or writing lesson.

Let children cover with green coffee.

Note: Green coffee is better to use than other lentils, because it can be washed, children and mice will not eat it, it is not easily rushed, does not roll, and is attractive.—School Education.

## Drawing and Construction Work

### The Divided Background in Pictorial Composition

The divided background is used in both pictorial and decorative composition. In landscape painting, still life, representation, etc., the divided background usually indicates a difference in direction of planes,



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as in a still life composition the part below the dividing line may indicate the horizontal plane of the table while the part above the line may indicate the wall or other vertical plane behind the object.

In decorative composition the divided background is somewhat of an abstraction, and while decorative composition has for its aim the representation or picturing of certain things, it especially emphasizes the arrangement of various spots. Pottery may be drawn to show beauty of form or color mainly, or it may in addition to these things show

1. The enclosing form.
2. The position within enclosing form.
3. Variety of spaces at top, bottom and sides. There



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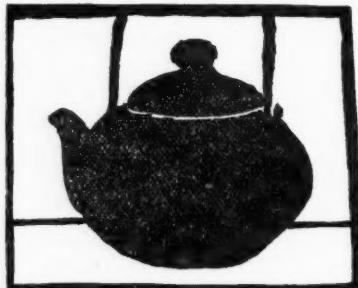
should be more space in direction of strongest motion, and least space where there is greatest feeling of rest.

The position of the dividing line is one of utmost

importance and is something which can not be taught in a single lesson, as every object presents a new problem in the placing of this line.

In the first place the line should be drawn so as to divide the background into consistently related spots. If one part is very large and the other very small the mind does not readily feel this relationship. It is only by a decided mental effort that we can compare inches with yards, and on the same principle if the difference in size of the two parts of the background is very great they seem not to belong to each other.

The dividing line may serve also as a support to the object in the weakest place. Generally speaking this line should be placed just below the largest part of the object. If the line is placed above the largest part of



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the object, the object is apt to have the appearance of slipping thru the line.

Try not to have many lines meeting or intersecting, for this reason: The difficulty of placing a table line is much increased where there is more than one object or where one of the objects has a handle.

In the accompanying illustration if the table line was placed a half-inch lower there would be too great a difference in the size of the two parts of the background, or if it had been placed a little higher it would have interfered with the handle. Practice will give greater power in placing this line so as to secure the best results.

For the greatest good to result from this work it is essential to have frequent class criticisms of work. Each pupil gains from seeing the work of all the others. No two pupils will have exactly the same results, therefore many drawings will present certain problems worked out in nearly as many different ways as there are students.—Drawing and Manual Training Journal.

## Handicraft

### For the Girls

Foremost in handicraft should be a continuation of sewing, which is emphasized in the outline published in the December 1 number of The Intelligence. The work planned there should go on thru this month. More clothes for dolls may be made, and more furnishings for the pioneer house and the doll-house. Tiny sheets, pillow cases and comfortables may be made for the bed, or crib or cradle that the house is furnished with. Table-cloths, napkins and scarfs for stands, dressing table, etc., may be added.

**For the Boys**

Various tools and utensils of the pioneer period may be made, such as a flail, a wooden rake, a wooden shovel and ax handles. Some ingenious boy should make two or three kinds of traps. Boats with oars, or a sail boat, and a canoe may be made; a pack-saddle, snow-shoes and moccasins are suggested by the history for the month, a mortar and pestal for pounding corn may be made, and an old-fashioned wellsweep added to the pioneer equipment.

Procure a horn from a butcher, consult some elderly person in the community as to how it may be cleansed and scraped thin. Add it to the store of pioneer articles. The preparation of hulled corn and of pemmican, furnishes interesting experiments in connection with the northern fur trade.

**Weaving**

If the pupils have not had considerable practice in weaving in the lower grades, it is well worth while to introduce a little hand weaving in the intermediate grades. If the teacher is not familiar with the work, she should get one of the excellent new books on the subject. "Handloom Weaving," by Mattie Phipps Todd, is very helpful.

**Drawing**

Draw and color patterns for weaving. Draw patterns of the various articles to be made. Make maps of the St. Lawrence and Hudson Bay region. Make careful maps showing the portages studied. Draw winter trees.

**Color Work**

Dye materials for weaving. There is a certain pleasure in coloring things that should come at least once to every child. It is a pity that so little of it is now done in the homes. It would better be done after school some day when there is time. It is a good plan to invite the mothers to come in and assist with this work. This will help to guard against accidents. No experiment needing a lighted lamp should ever be undertaken if there is any doubt about the discipline of the school. The alcohol lamp of a chafing dish may be used, and the dyeing done in a granite kettle.

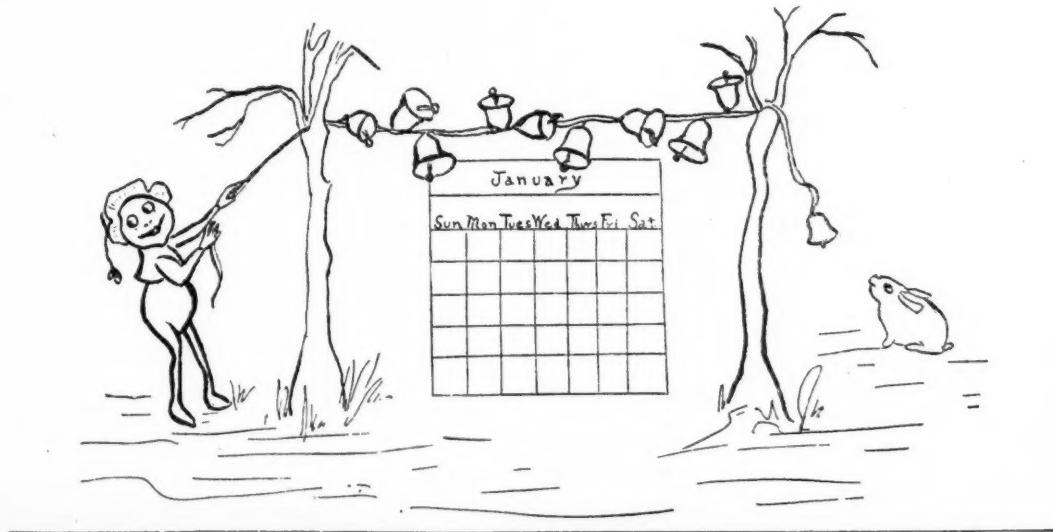
Use the butternut and walnut bark and shells, as directed in October. They must be steeped much longer

now, and the colors will be darker, with no hint of green in them. Buy a little madder and cochineal at a drug store, and dye red. There are always elderly people in every neighborhood who can give explicit directions for this work. Let the children see clearly how much trouble it used to be to get good coloring.

Finally, try a few aniline dyes. Excellent directions are given in Chapter VI of Miss Todd's book on weaving.

**Plan the Morning Exercises**

Systematic plans for morning exercises will prove as helpful to the school as any class work done. The beginning is one-half of the whole. Frequently the entire spirit of the schoolroom is purified, sweetened, uplifted, calmed and directed by appropriate opening exercises. A few moments well spent in this work is never time lost. Prepare for it as for any recitation. Vary the program. Let nothing else be doing. Put heart into it. Lessons for life are often taught thus.

**January Calendar**

## Number and Arithmetic

### Ought Number Teaching To Be Omitted in the First Three Grades

Supt. GEO. H. WHITCHER, N. H.

Not long ago a prominent educator remarked that "we ought not to teach number in the first two or three grades," and while he probably meant something other than his words implied, it is none the less unfortunate that statements of this kind should fall unqualified upon the willing ears of those who use them to uphold conclusions quite at variance with the opinions of our best educational thinkers.

As the above quotation stands, and as it was left in the minds of those who heard it, it would be equally true to say that we ought not to teach language, nature study or geography in the first two or three grades; indeed, we might use it as proof that the first two or three grades ought to be dropped altogether and the child be allowed to run at large until he is nine or ten years old.

The speaker above quoted had in mind, no doubt, formal number, and was fighting against that most unreasonable tradition that little first and second grade pupils ought to begin memorizing that Grube abomination known as "the forty-five combinations," and he was right in hitting that ugly head with almost any kind of a club. Still there is no excuse for denying the pupil the opportunity for acquiring a number foundation, and just as a language foundation is laid by talking and writing, a science foundation by seeing and handling the things of nature, or a geography foundation by observing babbling brooks, sloping hillsides or decaying rock, so ought the number foundation to be laid in number experience.

The function of the school is to aid the pupil in acquiring an all-round experience, starting with that brought from the home and building systematically upon it.

A five-year-old pupil, when he first comes to the public school some bright September morning, brings with him more of actual mental and physical accomplishment—such, for example, as a language mastered, eyes sharp to see, a brain that questions everything with its ever-ready how and why, hands that obey the will and feet that are guided by the reflex centers—than any teacher can hope to equal in any other five years of that pupil's life, and this power has all been gained since the helpless little fellow first saw the light of day by contact with his immediate surroundings.

It is safe to say that every line of mental or physical activity that leads to something good and useful later on in life is thus started under normal conditions and in harmony with the great pean of human evolution.

A babe at an early day observes the cat and dog; at

the age of a year he speaks their name—here is nature study and language. At three years he knows there are two kittens on the floor, one apple in the plate, or three cows in the pasture—here is number and nature study. At four he will exercise judgment in breaking a cooky or piece of candy into two pieces so that his little sister may share in the feast; he will tell you that "sister has half of the cooky," or, if the halving has been imperfectly performed, he may tell you that "sister's piece is smaller" than his own, as quite likely it will be. Or, if two pieces of a stick of candy, one but a trifle longer than the other, are presented for his choice, there is not much danger of his taking the smaller.

Our first-grade pupil comes to the school with the language germ not only sprouted but well grown; he has his facts of observation of plants and animals, of wild and cultivated flowers, of fruits from the orchard and nuts from the forest, of clouds that float and waters that flow, of hillsides he has toiled up or tumbled down, of snow paths to coast over and ice to slide on; and he has his number concepts too, such as an accurate discrimination between the short and long stick of candy, the large and small piece of pie.

He can halve an apple, tho he prefers a whole one. Now having all these lines of mental activity founded in his everyday experience, has the school a right to say that this or that line must cease developing, or at best be left to shift for itself? Have we any more right to withhold the stimulus to number development than we have to say: "Stop talking; your language powers are ahead of your thinking. What you need is to think a year or two and then talk."?

We do not teach formal grammar in the first two or three grades, but we do teach language, and a whole lot of it too. We do not tell the pupil that his nouns and verbs must agree in number, but we do correct his speaking and writing to conform to that rule. We do not teach a "language consciousness," but we do develop a "language sense."

In the same way we should not teach formal number, but we should systematically, persistently and rationally lead the pupil to add to his little store of number experiences, gained before coming to school by measuring, comparing, grouping and judging. To check this normal tendency of the mind for a year or two is as wrong as to withhold moisture or sunlight from vigorous, growing young plants.

Yes, we want to teach number from the very first day of the first year in school. Teach it rationally, so that all the child's powers shall be employed, his muscles in manipulating scissors, pencil or brush, or in placing sticks and tablets, using crayon on the blackboard, or in fashioning clay or pulp; his judgment in discriminating as to size and form as well as in determining "how many."

He may talk, or write, or draw, or model in clay, or weave colored splints, or whittle, or build block houses, and all the while add to his number experience. The true education develops the whole of the pupil's powers, gives him mastery over himself, makes him able to do, and at the same time builds a deep, broad foundation for number.—Journal of Education.

## An Arithmetic Talk

A. E. WINSHIP.

More and more is it apparent that we are wasting a deal of time in arithmetic. We are doing much under the name of arithmetic that is valueless, if not positively harmful.

The aim should be, and the only aim should be, to secure mathematical correctness, poise and alertness. Accuracy is nowhere so easily established as a habit as in arithmetic. There is no other mental characteristic so valuable. Any work in number that does not insist upon absolute accuracy is pedagogically criminal.

Mental poise is nowhere so easily established as in number work. Nowhere else is it so readily discernible whether the aim is accurate, and this is only possible when the mind is steady. Arithmetical activity requires a mind calm and balanced, and next to accuracy this is the greatest mental need in life.

Alertness is nowhere so easily developed as in arithmetical processes. What one does or fails to do may here be registered to the fractional part of an effort.

To know how to do is of little consequence unless one does what he knows how to do accurately, with perfect poise and great alertness.

The limitations that we place upon our school arithmetic are absurd. True there may be, doubtless are, some children who can do little, and of whom little should be demanded, but with most it is simply silly to stop where we do. There is no conquest worth while to a normal mind in anything or everything that the ordinary school arithmetic provides for. Personally, I have as little use for mathematics as a man can have, and yet I need, or think I do, the mental tonic thereof, and I count by 3's and 6's to 300, by 7's to 700, by 9's to 900, by 11's to 1100, and by 13's to 1300; recite the squares of all numbers to 100, and name the prime numbers to 200 practically every month. It is profitable to me, as a very busy man, to limber up my mind along the mathematical side. I write and talk and grapple with problems and with men vastly better by testing my mental machinery to see if it is accurate, poised and alert in this way. How much more profitable to a student who is setting a pace for life.

### Counting

Counting is a vigorous exercise if it is carried far enough. It keeps the mind wonderfully alert. Of course this is not true if we merely count by ones or twos, but by the time we count by thirteens there is something done mentally.

By ones and twos we have compassed all possible complications when we reach 20.

By threes we have not compassed these complications till we reach 300. There is slight virtue in counting by twos above 20, but with threes we must count to 300 before the discipline is important. It is well worth one's while to appreciate even this simple fact. From 30 to 60 and from 60 to 90 we but repeat the rhythm up to 30, but at 100 the rhythm is off and we start all over again. Children should count by threes to 300 early, often and persistently.

3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
102	5	8	11	14	17	20	23	26	29
201	4	7	10	13	16	19	22	25	28

If he observes that in the second 100 he has each time one less than in the first 100, and in the third 100 one less than in the second, or two less than in the first, it will be great sport. It keeps him thinking of the first or second while reciting the third. Test the different members of the class as to the rapidity with which they can count by threes to 300, and then test them by their own record from week to week, or month to month. Of course, at first it will be straight adding by threes, but after a time it is interesting to note the relations above 100 and then above 200.

In fours there is no change above 100.

In fives there is no change above 200.

In sixes the practice must go to 300, and is as valuable as in threes.

In sevens it must go to 700. This is heroic and must be insisted upon, and must be given much practice.

You can add by sevens with perfect ease by taking 3 less than 10 more. With a little practice you can do this as fast as you can speak, and it is just as easy to say 567, 574, 581, 588, as to say 7, 14, 21, 28.

Eights are counted to 400 only and there is not the slightest difficulty, because it is 2 less than 10 more.

Nines to 900 are easy because it is but 1 less than 10 more.

Elevens to 1100. In each case it is 1 more than 10 more.

In the case of 12's, it is 2 more.

Thirteen's seem complicated at first, but you add as fast as you can speak after a little practice, as it is 3 more than 10 more. It is as easy to say 923, 936, 949, 962, 975, 988, as to say 13, 26, 39, 52, 65, 78. It is delightful exercise if you keep it up to 1300, as each hundred has an entirely different combination from any preceding 100.

### Prime Numbers

1	3	5	7
11	13	17	19
	23		29
31		37	
41	43	47	
	53		59
61		67	
71	73	79	
	83		89
		97	
101	103	107	109
	113		
121		127	
131		137	139
151		157	
	163	167	
		173	179
181			
191		197	199

The following well-known rules, together with a knowledge of the multiples of 7 and 13, make it an easy matter to know the prime numbers. Of course, no even number is prime, and no number ending in 5 is prime. This leaves only numbers ending 1, 3, 7 and 9 to be considered.

Any number the sum of whose digits is divisible by 3, is so divisible and is not prime.

Then 117, 171, 153, 129 are not prime, because the sum of the digits is divisible by 3.

If the sums of the odd and even digits are the same or are divisible by 11, then the number is so divisible, and is not prime.

Then 187, 143, 121 are not prime.—Journal of Education.

## Geography and History

### Ways and Highways of Transportation

E. A. M.

#### Canals

While rivers are the natural highways of transportation, yet they do not always run in the directions that make them available for use, as in the case of the great rivers of rich and fertile Siberia, which must await artificial means of communication for development of its great natural wealth; and while waterways afford much cheaper routes of transportation than those on land, because of the smaller expense of maintaining a roadbed, yet these natural waterways often afford very roundabout routes; hence as a country's commerce develops artificial waterways called canals must sometimes be constructed. England, the home of the world's greatest commercial nation in some respects, is such a network of them that south of Durham no place is more than fifteen miles from navigation of some kind.

The student who investigates this subject will find it replete with history and commercial geography of increasing importance as the years go on and the world's growing commerce demands enlarged facilities for transportation.

#### Ancient Canals

The earliest canals were built for irrigation purposes. Their adaptation to navigation came afterwards. Among the first recorded instances is that of the royal canal at Babylon which was enlarged for transportation about 600 B. C. The ancients constructed some notable canals for transportation. One of these was at Alexandria (332 B. C.), connecting the port of Alexander's new city with the Nile, whose mouths were then obstructed by bars. The Romans constructed the canal of Marius (Fossa Mariana, 102 B. C.), connecting the lower Rhone with the Mediterranean. In the eighth century Charlemagne began canals joining the Main and the Rhine with the Danube, thus connecting the ocean with the Black Sea.

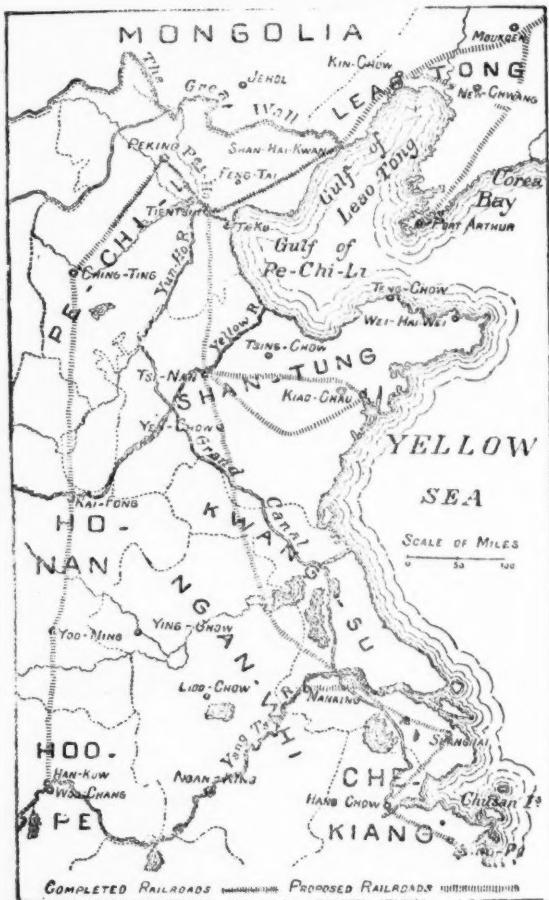
#### Locks

Before the seventeenth century, however, canals were impossible in many places for lack of locks, whose invention is claimed by both Italy and Holland, which used them three centuries ago. A lock is a watertight enclosure used to raise and lower boats to different levels. The side walls of a lock must be built to withstand the enormous pressure of saturated earth when the lock is empty of water. Watertight gates close each end.

Water doesn't run uphill, yet boats can be taken from lower to higher levels by means of locks. The water in the lock being at the same height as the water in the lower level, the boat enters the lock and the lower gates are shut. Valves in the upper gates are then opened and enough water is let in to raise it

to the same height as that of the upper level. The upper gates are then opened and the boat passes out into the upper level. In locking from an upper to a lower level the process is reversed. Of course both gates and the top of the lock must be slightly above the upper water level. Thus boats are enabled to climb up hills.

On the Grand Canal in China, where you would expect them to keep right on doing things in the hardest possible way, because change is forbidden by their religion, they pull the boats to higher levels by hauling them up inclined planes. This great canal, built in the thirteenth century to join the Pei Ho and the Yangtse-Kiang Rivers, 500 miles apart, is really a series of canalized rivers about 650 miles long, and with its connecting rivers affords an inland navigation of about 1,000 miles. The Grand Canal, shown on the



MAP SHOWING ROUTE OF CHINA'S GRAND CANAL.  
accompanying map, runs from Hangchow to Tientsin and was built not so much for the necessities of traffic as to avoid the pirate vessels that infest the coast.

#### The World's Great Canals

The world now has completed nine great ship canals. The tenth, which in some respects will be the greatest of them all, is yet to be constructed across the Isthmus of Panama. Following are these most important canals in chronological order:

1. The Welland, connecting Lake Erie with Lake

Ontario, originally constructed in 1833 and enlarged in 1871 and 1900.

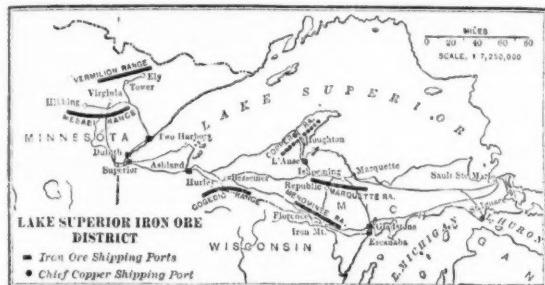
2 and 3. The two canals at Sault Ste. Marie, Mich. The St. Mary's Falls Canal was opened in 1855 and enlarged in 1881 and 1896. The Canadian Canal at St. Mary's River was opened in 1896.

4. The Suez Canal, begun in 1859, finished in 1869.  
5. The Cronstadt and St. Petersburg Canal, begun in 1877 and finished in 1890.  
6. The Corinth Canal, begun in 1884 and completed in 1893.

7. The Manchester Ship Canal, completed in 1895.  
8. The Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, connecting the North Sea and the Baltic, completed in 1895.  
9. The Elbe and Trave Canal, also connecting the North Sea and the Baltic, was opened in 1900.

#### Ship Canals Connecting Great Lakes

The three ship canals intended to give continuous passage to vessels from the head of Lake Superior to



Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River are the Welland Canal, the St. Mary's Falls Canal at Sault Ste. Marie, Mich., and the Canadian Canal at St. Mary's River. In point of importance, measured by their present use, the canals at the St. Mary's River by far surpass the Welland Canal, the number of vessels passing thru the canals at the St. Mary's River being eight times as great as the number passing thru the



Welland and the tonnage of the former nearly forty times as great as that of the latter. One of the important products of the Lake Superior region, iron ore, is chiefly used in the section contiguous to Lake Erie, and a large proportion of the grain coming from Lake Superior goes to Buffalo and on to the Atlantic coast by way of the Erie Canal and railroads centering at Buffalo. The most important article in the westward shipments thru the Sault Ste. Marie canals, coal.

originates in the territory contiguous to Lake Erie. These conditions largely account for the fact that the number and tonnage of vessels passing the St. Mary's River canals so greatly exceed those of the Welland. A study of the two maps, showing the iron and copper region about Lake Superior and their shipping and receiving ports, further explains the increased tonnage passing thru the "Soo" canals, which is greater by a third than the world's traffic going out of the Mediterranean Sea into the Suez Canal.

### Reinforcing the Text-Book in Geography Teaching

To secure this more complete mastery and connection of facts in geography there is great value in oral drills, both for the class as a whole and for individuals. Large wall maps are of special use. With such maps, and a pointer in his hand, the teacher can give rapid oral drills upon cities, rivers, countries, peninsulas and bays, mountains and political divisions—in fact, upon all the leading points in geography. Many of these facts range themselves in great series along traffic routes, river-courses or coast lines, or they may be traced along parallel lines of latitude or along great mountain chains. It is an easy matter to arouse strong enthusiasm and a vigorous class spirit in these oral drills.

When new and difficult geographical names are pronounced, first by the teacher and then in concert by the class and singly by pupils, they are very quickly fastened in the memory. Much more can be accomplished in a short time by vigorous drills in the class than by long periods of seat study. Such drills as these can be thrown in at odd moments almost daily in geographical work, and they give variety and interest to geographical study. Without such drills it is almost certain that many of the commonest names and facts will not be well mastered. The children may not know how to pronounce the new names, and if they learn them at all at their seat study they are apt to learn them wrong. Children will get much detailed knowledge from special type studies, but they fail to acquire that ready mastery and comprehensive grasp which nothing but drill exercise is likely to give. These drills fill in to a large extent the necessary facts lying between the larger types and give that mastery of geography in its usual setting which makes it practical.

In the treatment of the topics worked out in the text-books there are several ways in which the teacher may strengthen and reinforce the text-book lessons. In the assignment of lessons in the book it is well for the teacher to consider carefully how to open up the subject in such a way that the assignment of the lesson itself becomes something of a revelation of interesting problems and questions dealt with in the book. Merely to assign a number of paragraphs or pages in a book is insipid, but if the teacher calls attention to what they have been studying and shows how it leads up to the following topics, recalls some familiar experience or knowledge of the children, shows how the lesson will be helped by a proper study of maps, or by examining certain pictures, or by reading some book of reference, a strong stimulus is given to the study of a lesson. With many children the victory is half won. The purpose that underlies all this is not to give

excessive help to the children, thus reducing their own self-activity and independent effort, but rather to stimulate to stronger effort, to thoughtful study, to an independent use of books and materials. A great deal depends upon the teacher's knowing how to assign a lesson properly.

It is generally admitted that there are several important ways by which the knowledge contained in the text-books should be enlarged upon in class discussion. This may be done by the presentation of additional facts by the teacher, by the use of geographical readers, guide-books and books of travel by the children, and by collecting illustrative pictures, maps and magazine articles from various sources. Most successful teachers of geography use all these methods of awakening the children to thoughtfulness and independent use of sources. It might seem that the text-books are so full of material on important topics that not much of this sort needs to be added, and certain it is that the text-book lessons should be the nuclei around which this additional material is clustered and to which it is made contributory. But there is one inevitable deficiency in text-book work which the teacher alone can make good. This deficiency lies in the meagerness of the concrete and illustrative details of each subject. If children wish to know how a canal lock works, how iron is smelted in a blast furnace, how the jetties for deepening the mouth of the Mississippi are constructed, how the water-power of a river is applied to a millwheel, how an irrigating ditch is constructed, how gold is gotten out of a mine, and scores of other similar problems, they will not find them explained in text-books. Yet these may be the very meatiest parts of the lesson. Nor can we throw the blame for this defect upon the text-books. It would be impossible for text-books to contain such material. It lies with the teacher and the children to work these things out in the classroom on the basis of the text-book work. This implies, of course, that the teacher, as well as the children, must have some time for the reading of geographical readers and other reference books.—McMurry's Teachers' Manual.

## How to Teach Advanced Geography

Prof. Hathaway in his "How to Teach the Frye Geographies" lays down nine maxims with which every teacher of any geography should be familiar. In your work with your advanced geography class are you extending their knowledge of these principles?

1. Slopes decide the directions of rivers, and by rivers we are able to find out the direction of slopes.
2. Coarser soil is found near the heads of streams, while the finest soil is in the vicinity of the outlet.
3. Water is necessary to all forms of vegetable life.
4. Deltas are formed from soil worn off from high land and deposited where slow streams empty into still water.
5. By means of evaporation and precipitation the rivers are supplied with water.
6. By means of divides river basins and systems are formed.
7. Wind, frost and running water are the chief agencies in pulverizing rock and wearing down mountains.
8. Running water is the chief agency in transporting material from the mountain regions to the lowlands, and most of the lowlands of the world have been thus made.
9. The chief agency in shaping shore forms is the ocean.

## Importance of Early Use of Knowledge

If I learn a poem it easily passes from the mind, at least enough of it to make the rest valueless, but if I can recite it to some friend incidentally, or better on the platform, it is a permanent possession. The same is true with any facts and figures picked up from books, papers or conversation, or of any story or conundrum enjoyed. You have heard a "funny" lecture, brimful of laughable stories, or have passed an evening with a set of jolly comrades who rattled off stories and conundrums by the string, and a day or two after could not recall more than two of them, and those two were the ones you had retold to some one else. This is as true of the facts, figures and processes learned in school. Everything passes from the mind sooner or later, usually sooner, unless it is used in some sensible way. About all the real value in the one-time correlation craze was in the fact that it sought to apply everything used in some other relationship, and that was of inestimable service. It went into a state of innocuous desuetude because it was so overworked in the effort to hunt up some fourteenth uncle, aunt and cousin scheme in which the relationship was so distant that the application did not apply. All knowledge must be early applied in order for it to be one's own knowledge.—Journal of Education.

## Winter Suggestions

Keep a record of all the extra cold days. Of the days of good sleighing, of good coasting, good skating.

Have essays upon "The Snowstorm," "Skating," "Coasting," "Sleighriding," when each is most timely.

Call attention to the way that smoke rises on a clear cold day.

Have studies of the frostwork on windows these snapping cold mornings.

Fishing thru the ice is a good topic for conversation and composition in the communities where it is common.

Teach about pickerel and lake trout.

Study about ice cutting.

It is the season for moose and deer.

"A Slippery Day" makes a good subject for a semi-comic composition, especially for children who can illustrate their writing.

Lumbering is a good theme for February.

Study the trees that are cut by lumbermen.

The nuts of commerce are good themes for the season.

"Crows in Winter" would make a good subject for a few paragraphs by children that had observed them.

Burn's "Cotter's Saturday Night" is good reading.

"The Wood Pile" is another good subject for a few paragraphs touching upon the varieties of wood, the qualities of each, the way in which it is chopped, etc.

The laurel, the holly, the yew, the juniper, the persimmon, the magnolias, are good winter studies.

Are you keeping a weather record? The days are lengthening.

Watch for the northern lights. By what other name are they called?

You may find green ferns under the snow.

The pussywillows are covered with tiny scales.  
The crows are looking for food after the snow.

These are the days in which to read stories of the Eskimo. Have you read Schwatka's "Children of the Cold?"

Look at the snow crystals and sketch them.

How many different forms do you find?

You can now study the bark of the trees, and their general form.

"The Open Wood Fire" is a good subject for a dreaming composition.

The hare has put on his winter coat. What color is it?

The snowbirds and tree sparrows still flock about the seed stalks in the garden.

If there is a telescope in your neighborhood, get a peep at the winter sky; if you have not that advantage, make the best use of your own eyes.

Have you read Ball's "Star Land?" It is one of the best books for your young people.

Does the sap in the trees freeze?

Can you tell by looking at the clouds whether we are going to have rain or snow?

Are the snowflakes larger in a severe storm or a mild one?

To what depth is the ground frozen?

What effect does the frost have on stones and cliffs?

Do more plants die of the cold winters when the snow fall is heavy or when it is light?

What animals feed on the young buds of trees?

Do you know another name for the chickadee?

How many animals can you name that sleep days and prowl about for food during the night?—American Primary Teacher.

## Valentine's Day

Ask the children to bring pretty cards or pictures that they think would look well on the valentines they are to make for each other. The teacher should look the collection over and select the pictures or cards most appropriate.

Have the children cut out of colored cardboard double and single hearts, using patterns furnished by the teacher. The hearts may be decorated with water-colors or with tiny hearts cut from gold paper. If the children wish they can paste gold paper over the cardboard hearts, then add their pretty pictures. Tie four or five of the hearts together in a "string." Have simply the word valentine or appropriate little verses written or printed on the hearts. Elaborate valentines may be constructed with lace paper and colored ribbon tied in little bows and fastened around the hearts.

Some of the children will wish to make valentine books of colored paper with verses written inside. Ribbon and lace paper add to the daintiness and beauty of these.

Let one room make valentines for the children in another room. Have the names of the latter room written on a piece of paper. Each child may draw a name and make a valentine for the child whose name is on the card. This will do away with any hard feelings and none will feel called upon to choose the prettiest girl or the most popular boy. Yet none must know who is to be the valentine of any other child. The secret should be tenderly guarded; the interest in the giving is increased fourfold when this is done.—Conn. School Journal.

## Nature Study

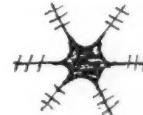
### A Study of Snow

ALICE FITZPATRICK, EL PASO, TEXAS.

This lesson should be given on the occasion of a snow storm. It will be well worth the while of the teacher to put aside the routine work of the day and devote the time necessary to this subject. It will be an opportune time for impressing such facts about snow as should be taught in this grade (First Primary), and the recreation afforded by the diversion will work for good in the memories of the children.

Permit the children to satisfy the eye by looking out of the windows, then lead them to talk on the beauties of a snow storm. Let your aim be to bring them into a full appreciation of this, one way in which Nature gives expression to beauty, and let them marvel at the reasons for the whiteness of the flakes, and the identity thruout the variety of the crystals.

**Formation of Snow**—The children have learned from experiments in evaporation of water, that heat changes the water into vapor. Explain that the heat of the sun changes some of the water in rivers, ponds, etc., into vapor, and that this is drawn far up into the air. When the air is cold enough it turns the vapor into snowflakes



and it then falls toward the earth. Why does the snow fall slowly?

Are we glad to have the snow—if so *why* are we glad? At this point lead the children to observe and think and draw from them the

**Uses of Snow**—(a) Gives moisture to plants and tree-roots. It serves same purpose as does rain in summer.

(b) Keeps seeds and roots of plants warm.

(c) Purifies the air.

**Observation of Snow Crystals**—Catch snowflakes on black velvet cloth, and examine thru a magnifying glass to discover shape.

Snow nature seems to be bound by a law of sizes. Eminent scientists tell us that all snow crystals are six-rayed or hexagon plate shaped, occasionally a three or twelve rayed crystal is seen, but the three-rayed may be an interrupted formation and the twelve a double—but the centers are all always hexagonal. This law of the angles is never broken, the rays themselves are often broken, but never the creative law. This is one of Nature's most beautiful and wonderful phenomena.

Call the attention of the children to this creative law, and let them wonder at Nature's reason for this identity thruout variety. How did it happen, or why?

**Reading**—Such sentences as,

The snow is white.

It comes from the clouds.

The snow makes the air pure, etc., should be obtained from the children, by questioning, and written on the blackboard as given, to be used as a supplementary reading lesson for the day.

**Drawing**—

(a) Chalk Drawing of Snow Scene.

(b) Simplest form of snow crystals.

**Paper Cutting**—Snow Stars.

**Directions for cutting:**

1½ inch squares of white tissue paper. (Several to child.)

1. Fold to make oblong.

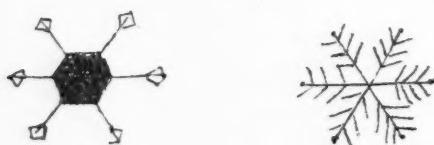
2. Fold c, b, d.

3. Fold a, b, e.

4. Fold again bringing together edges d, e.

Almost any kind of a cut will result in a six-pointed figure which will resemble a snow crystal.

**Rest Exercise**—



Snowball game in pantomime.

**Stories**—

(a) "How The Cloud Specks Became Snowflakes."

(b) "The North Wind and the Snow Princess."—Forest and Field. Vol. IV.—Chase.

**Songs**—

Where Do All The Daisies Go?

The Snow Is Falling Fast.

Song of the Snow Stars.

**Memory Gems**—

"Whenever a snowflake leaves the sky,  
It turns and turns to say "Good-by,"  
"Good-by, dear cloud, so cool and gray!"  
Then lightly travels on its way.

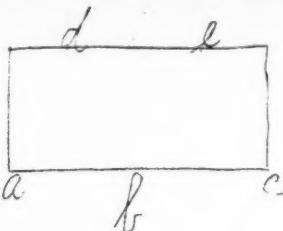
And when the snowflake finds a tree,  
"Good day!" it says; "Good day to thee!"  
Thou art so bare and lonely, dear,  
I'll rest and call my comrades here."

"Help one another," the snowflakes said,  
As they cuddled down in their fleecy bed,  
One of us here would not be felt,  
One of us here would quickly melt;  
But I'll help you, and you help me,  
And then what a splendid drift there'll be."

This is the way the snow comes down,  
Softly, softly falling;  
So he giveth his snow like wool,  
Fair and white and beautiful;  
This is the way the snow comes down,  
Softly, softly falling.

**Additional Seat Work**—(1) The advanced class may find occupation by writing lists of words that are suggested by snow. (2) And taking "Snow" for the subject write a story.

Note: This lesson is planned for the First Primary Grade, and gives only such facts as are within the comprehension of the children of that age, that is, they can "see" as far into the miracle of snow nature as we "grown ups" and marvel at the *whys* and *hows*. It has proven by actual trial, a very enjoyable lesson to the little ones.



## January Nature Study

HENRIETTA M. LILLEY IN THIRD SCHOOL YEAR.

We have now not only a new day, a new week, a new month, but much more, a new year. When we met together before we wrote December 1904, now we will write January 1905. Let the pupils recall many things that have happened during this year, and of the many joys they hope to have during the coming year. Talk of how they have grown. Ask if they have grown taller and stronger, wiser and better, in the year that has passed.

Now talk about the children of 1905. January and February are dressed in white. March in brown, April and May in light green, June, July and August in darker green, September in yellow, October in red, November in brown, and December in white.

The sunshine chart will be examined and a clear picture of each month recalled. Thus the changing seasons will march before their eyes in actual procession. The series of landscape pictures will also be examined, making clearer the color aspect of the months. The temperature chart will show the gradual decrease of heat from September till January.

Talk to the children of the good things they had for Christmas dinner, and of the foods eaten every day. Lead them to see that food is necessary to life.

I. List of foods eaten every day—bread, meat, potato, milk.

II. Sources of foods.

1. Animals—meat, milk, eggs.
2. Plants—fruits, vegetables, nuts.
3. Minerals—salt, lime, water.

III. Constituents of foods—test for starch by the use of iodine, albumen, sugar, gluten, oils and fats.

IV. Test for sugar—taste.

Test for albumen—Try the white of an egg in a test tube heated over an alcohol lamp. Note its behavior. Try bits of lean meat the same way and the same substance will be found.

- V. Necessity of masticating starchy foods.
- VI. Test for gluten—Wash flour until a sticky substance remains.
- VII. Test for carbon—burning.
- VIII. Uses of foods.
- IX. Compare summer and winter diet.
- X. Compare the Eskimo's food with our summer meal and our winter meal. Account for the difference.

**Air**

- I. Necessary to man.
  - 1. Prove by a simple experiment.
  - 2. Other things to which air is necessary—plants, fire; prove by putting a candle under a tight jar.
- II. Air is all around us.
  - 1. Prove by a simple experiment.
  - 2. Greatest height at which children have found air.
  - 3. Distance under ground at which air has been found.
- III. Effect of heat on air. Expansion.
 

Partly fill a balloon with air and dip it in hot water.
- IV. Movements of air.
  - 1. Hold a paper over the radiator.
  - 2. Take the temperature of the air at the floor and near the ceiling.
  - 3. What happens to heated air.
  - 4. Hold a candle above and below a window. What causes the difference in the direction the flame turns?
  - 5. In how many ways can the air be made to move?
- V. Should the air in the schoolroom move?
  - 1. Breathe into lime water. Notice the change in the clear water.
  - 2. What is the condition of a closed room?
- VI. How can we keep the air pure?
- VII. Amount of air inhaled and exhaled in single respirations. Experiment—Have a jar sealed in gills, pints, and quarts, a bent tube, and a bucket of water. Invert the jar in water and inhale thru the tube. Notice how far the water rises in the jar at each inhalation. When the jar is full of water, measure in a similar way the quantity exhaled in one breath. Try this:
  - 1. Sitting.
  - 2. Standing.
  - 3. After chest exercises, or gymnastics.
- VIII. Wind—air in motion. Work of the wind.
  - 1. Turns mills.
  - 2. Pushes ships.
  - 3. Carries seeds.
  - 4. Dries clothes.
  - 5. Makes snow drifts.

**Geology**

- I. River pebbles.
  - 1. Collect many from the creek and river shores.

- 2. Surface of pebbles compared with freshly broken stones.
- 3. Account for the roundness—marble making.
- 4. Shape of pebbles.
- 5. Color in pebbles.
- 6. Test as to hardness.
- 7. Trace the course of the pebble from the rock.
- 8. Work of water, sand, floods in their formation.

**Fossils**

- I. Show fossils and have the children find other forms on the rocks.
- 2. Distinguish each part of the fossil corresponding to the growing plant, stem, blade, etc.
- 3. Where fossils are found—coal mine, hillside valley, mountain.
- 4. The needs of the growing fern.
  - a. Water—as river, ocean, lake, creek, rain, dew, vapor.
  - b. Heat.
  - c. Light.
  - d. Air.
  - e. Soil—marsh, prairie, mountain.
- 5. What may have been its environment while growing.
- 6. Account for fossils.—Experiment—Have silt in a jar of water, into which put leaves, sticks, etc., and pour off the water. Let the dirt dry, turn it out of the jar and hunt for the leaves.
- 7. Lead up to the very long time required in covering and forming into rock.
- 8. Why do the leaves on the campus decay and not form fossils?

**School Management**

PROF. EDWARD R. SHAW, SCHOOL OF PEDAGOGY, NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.

The question of mental fatigue with school children concerns itself with the amount of work that may be put upon the nerve centers so that the highest power of efficiency that these cells are potentially capable of performing may not be impaired.

The acquiring of a new process of thought uses up energy very rapidly. When mental application on the part of the pupil is carried beyond a certain point, not only under such conditions is more lost than is gained in establishing the desired process of thought, but the nervous mechanism receives impairment from which it must recover. If the application on the part of the pupil goes on day after day, permanent injury is done to the nervous mechanism. This may show itself in the difficulty with which the mind can do mental work and in its inability to acquire more complicated thought processes.

The studies which have thus far been made to deter-

mine mental fatigue divide themselves into two main classes. The first class comprises all those investigations in which some formal exercises, as addition and multiplication of figures, memory tests, the filling in of words and letters which have been omitted in sentences, and the bisecting of lines—the fatigue being measured, it is assumed, by the number of errors and inaccuracies made.

It is after all a question whether these investigations have resulted in any new guiding knowledge. They have emphasized some conclusions which were the outcome of practical, everyday observation on the part of careful teachers. The difficulty with these investigations is the terms in which the investigators propose to measure fatigue and thus determine its laws. Fatigue, I am inclined to think, must be considered or regarded as an individual thing. Studies which are difficult for one pupil are not so for another. Minds differ greatly in their power to acquire the different kinds of knowledges. Whatever kind of knowledge is difficult for a given mind to acquire, any attempt to gain that kind of knowledge is followed very quickly by fatigue. These studies in fatigue have not taken into consideration sufficiently the large individual differences in minds. To my thinking, therefore, the second class of investigations into intellectual fatigue, as those of Griesbach, Vannod, and Binet and Henri, give us knowledge which, when it has been sufficiently tested, we can easily apply, gaining from it somewhat definite guidance. These investigators have sought to determine the presence and degree of fatigue by testing the sensitiveness of the skin in perceiving the distance apart which the points of a pair of compasses may be placed and be distinguished as two separate points. In this way the sensitiveness of the skin upon the medium line of the forehead, upon the extremity of the nose, upon the cheek or the cheek bone, upon the edge of the lower lip and upon the ball of the thumb and the index finger is tested.

There are a great many questions still unsettled in relation to fatigue. There is some difference of opinion as to whether gymnastics increases fatigue or whether a period of gymnastics affords opportunity for recuperation on the part of the pupil. The conclusions, pro and con, may be due to the kind of gymnastics given. The manner of the teacher may be an important factor in causing fatigue. The few guiding conclusions which may be drawn from these studies on fatigue are that in the presentation of that which is new fatigue takes place very rapidly. Pupils should, then, be given very short periods of intense work, this to be followed by a period of rest and recuperation. The best way in which this latter can be achieved is to give the child during these periods of recreation and repose the utmost physical freedom to do as he wishes and to follow his own bent.

## Did it Pay

I had always known that Miss Burns exercised a peculiar influence for good over all of her pupils, but not until the other evening did I learn one of the secrets of her power. I do not believe in keeping after

school, but I went home Thursday night fully convinced that in the hands of the proper person the hour after dismissal might become, indeed, a good investment.

I had run into Room One to chat a bit and, like Miss Burns's pupils, I stayed. Miss Burns's pupils always stay. Mine never do unless they are obliged to. A score of children were scattered about this room engaged in various occupations. Two or three were busy setting the schoolroom to rights; several were at their desks busy with pen or crayon; two boys at the blackboard were struggling with a knotty problem in algebra; and in one corner was gathered a group of boys and girls, evidently discussing some important question. There was an atmosphere of business about the room that gladdened my soul.

Excited voices had reached us from the group in the corner, and soon there came: "Miss Burns, wasn't it wicked for anybody to keep slaves?" The teacher smiled as she remarked: "We took up the slavery question today. Marion is an ardent little Southerner. I think they are trying to convert her." Then, as she stepped to the group of somewhat irritated children, there followed a gentle little talk on the right of every citizen to his conscientious scruples, a little clearing up of the condition of things during slave days and a softly spoken plea for forbearance that somehow restored the indignant Marion to her usual sunny good-nature and left a spirit of tolerance among the group.

A bright-faced lad came to the teacher's desk for a book. "Well, Harry, how was it today?" "Fine!" came the inelegant but hearty reply. "It's hard keeping straight, but a fellow feels mighty good at night just the same." "Yes," added Miss Burns, "I've been proud of you all day!" and Harry said "Good night" with a look that told me he would work even harder on the morrow to win the respect of that little lady.

So it went on—a point in grammar straightened out, a timely suggestion to the two at the blackboard, a friendly hand on the shoulder of a boy who needed a "word in season," a drawing inspected and praised, a caress on the curls of a dear little girl just lately left motherless—a word here, a glance there, but an influence whose end is not yet.

By and by they all said "Good night," unconsciously perhaps, but I am sure none the less certainly, carrying with them into a score of homes a touch of the genial, happy spirit that had radiated all day from that teacher's desk.

Was the teacher tired? Probably, but she looked after the departing group with a smile in her eyes and the words, "They are dear children."

And I? I pondered many things in my secret heart.  
—M.

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The problem of every teacher is to develop the best that is in each child entrusted to her care, ever remembering that the real work of teaching is to furnish inspiration, to train character and to awaken, develop and direct the powers and faculties of the mind.—Our Schools.

## What Drawing Should Be in the Grades of Our Schools.

By Ida May Strawn.

The man who said that he wanted his boy to learn reading, writing and arithmetic is not to be condemned. Rather is he to be praised for his sensible view of the benefits his child was to obtain in the studies he dictated. He fully appreciated the limitations of his own life because of the inadequacy of his knowledge in the branches of learning that had entered into his everyday existence. The over crowding of the curriculum with music, nature study, Delsarte, drawing, etc., and the child's hazy and often ridiculous reports of these studies in the home, has done much to add to their disrepute, together with the fact that the studies of greatest importance are neglected. I once asked a little girl who was reading in the Third Reader to spell "head." She said, "h-e-d." I asked her to read a simple sentence, "Suppose, my little lady, your doll should break her head," etc. She utterly failed to get the sense. I then asked her, if she could draw. Her ideas in drawing were even more confused. Music, language, arithmetic and geography—all the same. Yet she is more than average bright. Why do we wonder then, that the present day method of instruction so often comes under the ban of disfavor. It is not my intention to enter a protest against the present school methods, but rather to take the proper view of my special work and prove its use, and its right to a place because of its useful-

ness. The teacher is training the child for life and in most instances he comes from the home of the laborer and the tradesman. Then the masses of children who are to receive an education will work with their hands. What we want next to the three R's is handwriting. Therefore my plea. Drawing should be a sub-topic under manual arts. The end and aim of drawing in the school is not to make an artist of the artisan. The artist has always found his way up and out into the glory of the beautiful world of creating, unaided by the elementary school. We never teach for the one child; we teach for the ninety-nine. We tell the child to study relation, proportion, placing, and character, for the training he derives from it. We teach him how to see things because of the development of the ideas in his mind; the accuracy it gives to his eye; the skill to his hand. It is an acknowledged fact that skill acquired in one direction is never lost in another. It is as far-reaching as human wants.

Could any one imagine a more absurd method of teaching drawing than the enthusiast who says, "Children, we are going to paint a picture of this beautiful apple," or potato, or carrot (and yet it is done, and done). "We are all going to make it look just like it." No, no, how can the thoughtful teacher, who understands the importance of the subject, so far forget herself as to jeopardize it in such a manner! Carot, Rembrandt or Raphael could transform the commonplace into the beautiful—aye—the sublime. But we, we are to teach the child to make as careful a representation of the object

## TEN REASONS WHY

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- III.—BECAUSE it supplies not only methods and materials for use in religious education—the all-important work of our schools—but it is generally conceded to equal the best secular journals in value and amount of practical material on the common school branches. Many public school teachers take it because of its superiority in this regard.
- IV.—BECAUSE just as "Catholic Schools for all Catholic children" is a claim on parents warranted by the importance of religious training, so also "The Catholic School Journal for all Catholic teachers" is a claim on Catholic teachers warranted by the attention that the publication gives to methods and materials on the special work of the church schools.
- V.—BECAUSE the secular journals at any price are comparatively poor value for Catholic teachers, inasmuch as far from affording any help in systematic religious training, they ignore completely the place of religion in education. Like the public schools for which they are intended, they give much attention to fads and no attention to the all-important work of religious education.
- VI.—BECAUSE this Journal is commended by Most Rev. Archbishops, Rt. Rev. Bishops, Rev. Pastors and Rev. Superiors of Teaching Orders. Its practical value and interest are attested by voluntary testimonials from hundreds of religious teachers in all parts of the United States.
- VII.—BECAUSE Catholic teachers should take pride in having a publication or medium of their own. And inasmuch as every new subscription helps to make The Journal better and more useful for all, the co-operation of every teacher is much to be desired.
- VIII.—BECAUSE, as Bishop Spalding says, "the teacher is the school and whatever refreshes or quickens or inspires the teacher, must stimulate and uplift the school." Bishop Spalding was one of the first prelates to commend The Journal and encourage it on as a needed undertaking.
- IX.—BECAUSE the school whose work consists of mere question and answer drills without any of the special exercises and devices of program that add variety, interest and zest to class work, is dragging along without accomplishing the results that it should. The School Journal supplies the methods, aids and devices that make for the progress of the class.
- X.—BECAUSE the teacher who says she has no time to read a school journal is the very one who most needs it. Proper class methods will give necessary leisure for profitable professional reading. Moreover the teacher who offers this excuse really places little value on her own time and that of the class. There is never an issue of The Journal but contains a number of time-saving methods and suggestions—the fruits of the experience of successful teachers. What is \$1.00 a year for The Journal as against hours, days and even weeks saved in the general progress of the class.

following certain basic principles of representation. Not one drawing will contain a single element of the artist, and yet the real drawing teacher will secure results worth while,—and the development of the mind—eye—hand. In saying “beautiful,” the end and aim is lost sight of; in fact, it was never appreciated. No wonder that the subject considered from that point of view is a failure and a waste of time.

The aesthetic taste of the child in pictorial drawing should be and only can be, cultivated by associating with, and absorbing the pictures from the hand of the master, either in the original or excellent copies, and not from the picture drawn and colored by the amateur, or by himself.

So far, only representative drawing has been considered, and that, too, seems to be the only one considered by the one who has not studied the subject. Of a truth, it is the narrowest view to be taken; for not a city is built, and not a railroad crosses the land, nor a ship crosses the sea, unaided by the draftsman. Patterns are not woven in fabrics, designs are not wrought in tapestry or hangings, figures are not hammered out of copper, brass or gold, decoration is not cut nor carved into wood,—without the drawing of the design.

The following is a brief outline, taken from the Augsburg System of Drawing (Manual for Teachers, Book II. and III.)::

#### Grade I.

- Chapter 1. Drawing from memory and the imagination.
- Chapter 1. Illustrating stories and bits of poetry.
- Chapter 2. Drawing representing action.
- Chapter 5. Drawing of trees.
- Chapter 3. Two-handed exercises.
- Applied. Drawing in connection with number, language and nature work.
- Applied 15. Color work.

#### Grade II.

- Chapter 1. Drawing from memory and imagination.
- Chapter 1. Illustrating stories and bits of poetry.
- Chapter 2. Drawing representing action.
- Chapter 3. Two-handed exercises.
- Chapter 4. Place and relation of objects.
- Chapter 6. Relative size of objects.
- Chapter 4. Object drawing.
- Chapter 5. Study of a tree.
- Chapter 11. Study of a bird.
- Chapter 12. Study of an animal.
- Chapter 15. Water Colors.

#### Grade III.

- Chapter 1. Memory and imaginative drawing.
- Chapter 1. Illustrating language exercises.
- Chapter 2. Action drawing.
- Chapter 3. Two-handed exercises.
- Chapter 7. Teaching proportion.
- Chapter 9. Object drawing.
- Chapter 8. Unity in drawing.
- Chapter 5. Study of a tree.
- Chapter 11. Study of a bird.
- Chapter 12. Study of an animal.
- Chapter 15. Water colors.

Manual for Teacher, Book I.

#### Grade IV.

- Chapter 1. The perspective principle.
- Chapter 2. The box as a type form.
- Chapter 3. The cube as a type form.
- Chapter 4. Application of the box form.
- Chapter 9. Object drawing.

#### Grade V.

- Chapter 5. Oblique drawing.
- Chapter 6. Exact drawing.
- Chapter 7. The cylinder as a type form.
- Chapter 9. Object drawing.

#### Grade VI.

- Chapter 8. Application of the cylinder.
- Chapter 9. Object drawing.
- Chapter 10. The triangular prism as a type form.
- Chapter 1. Book III. Brush drawing.

#### Grade VII.

- Chapter 11. Reflections.
- Chapter 2. Book III. Wash drawing.
- Chapter 9. Object drawing.

#### Grade VIII.

- Chapter 3. Book III. Water colors.
- Chapter 9. Object drawing.

#### Plan of Study for English Classics.

The following general plan, with some modifications, may be applied with good results throughout the course in English classics:

##### 1—Meaning of the author:—

- a. Outline of the story.
- b. Incidents in the story.
- c. Central idea and purpose of the story.

##### 2—Method of the author:—

- a. Does the interest centre in the incidents and in the scenes or in the characters?
- b. Is there a climax?
- c. Do all the parts converge to this point?
- d. Are the parts arranged in a sequence?
- e. Are they treated in the right proportion?
- f. Is the interest sustained? How?

##### 3—Style of the author:—

- a. Character of vocabulary.
- b. Meaning in detail of particular words and sentences.
- c. Prevailing sentence forms.
- d. Paragraph structure.
- e. Use of embellishment.

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Fourth.—Teachers desirous to take examinations for higher licenses will receive from these lectures many valuable suggestions.

The opening address of the course was given Nov. 17 by Archbishop John M. Farley. The regular lecturer on this occasion was Msgr. Michael J. Lavelle, Ex-President Catholic Summer Schools; Advantages to Parents and to Teachers from the Study of Pedagogics, 2d Lecture—December 1, Ossian Lange, Editor Educational Foundations; Herbart and the Herbartian System of Education, 3rd and 4th Lectures—Dec. 8, Frank R. Moore, Principal Commercial High School; Problems in Commercial Education, Franklin W. Giddings, Ph.D., Columbia University; Education for Patriotism and for Citizenship, 5th Lecture—Dec. 15, Mrs. Margaret S. Mooney, State Normal College; Modern Religious Dramas, 6th Lecture—Dec. 22, Conde B. Pallen, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of English, Subject to be announced, 7th Lecture—Jan. 5, James C. Byrnes,

Board of Examiners, New York City: The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics, 8th Lecture—Jan. 12, C. M. Kice, Editor of the Forum: Criteria of Educational Criticism, 9th and 10th Lectures—Jan. 19, Jesse Grant Cramer, Ph.D., DeWitt Clinton High School: The Teaching of Foreign Languages in Public Schools, Thomas M. Balliet, Ph.D., Dean of New York University: The Adjustment of Education to Present Conditions of Life, 11th Lecture—Jan. 26, James Lee, M.D., District Superintendent, New York City: The Physical Equipment of the Teacher, 12th and 13th Lectures—Feb. 2, John A. Brewer, A. B., Armour Institute, Chicago: Modern Tendencies in the Teaching of Mathematics, James M. Edsall, District Superintendent, New York Appreciative Reading, 14th Lecture—Feb. 9, Laura D. Gill, Ph.D., Dean of Barnard College: The Present Educational Tendencies in Women's Colleges, 15th Lecture—Feb. 16—William R. Feltner, Ph.D., Principal Girls' High School: Training for Study and Training for Power, 16th Lecture—Feb. 23, Andrew W. Edison, Associate Superintendent, New York City: Educational Exhibits, 17th and 18th Lectures—Mar. 2, Grace C. Strachan, District Superintendent, New York City: English in the Present Course of Study, Rev. Denis J. McMahon, D.D., subject to be announced, 19th Lecture—Mar. 9, Rev. Patrick A. Halpin, Pastor: The Development of Conscience, 20th and 21st Lectures—Mar. 16, Lyman A. Best, Ph.D., President Teachers' Association of Greater New York: Essentials and Non-Essentials in the Course of Study, Samuel T. Dutton, M.A., Teachers' College: The Extension of Education to Adults, 22d Lecture—Mar. 23—Gerardine O'Grady, Teachers' College: Kindergarten Training for the College Student, 23d Lecture—Mar. 30—Rev. James Conway, S. J.: Functions of Parent, State and Church in Matters of Education, 24th and 25th Lecture—Apr. 6, Mrs. B. Ellen Burke, Editor Sunday Companion, subject to be announced, Charles D. Larkins, Princip-

pal Manual Training High School: The Relation of Manual Training to General Education, 26th Lecture—Apr. 13, Geo. B. Germann, Ph.D., Principal Public School 130: Schools Past and Present, 27th and 28th Lectures—Apr. 27, Nelson Hume, A.M., English Master, Newman School: The Teaching of English in Secondary Schools, Edward T. Devine, Ph.D.: Training for Social Service, 29th Lecture—May 4, Henry M. Leipzinger, Ph.D., Superintendent of Lectures, New York City: Adult Education and School Extension Work, 30th and 31st Lectures—May 11, Homer Folk, Commissioner of Charities: Laws Regulating Child Labor in New York State, Samuel M. Lindsay, subject to be announced, 32d and 33d Lectures—May 18, Kate Sterling, M.D.: Physiological Knowledge Necessary to Teachers and Parents, Laurence Veiller, City Club: The Tenement House Evils in Their Relation to School Life, 34th Lecture—May 26, Morgan J. O'Brien, Chief Justice: The City of Twentieth Century.

### Drawing in the Grades.

We would direct the attention of our readers to the article on "Drawing in the Schools," page 255 of this number. The writer, Miss Strawn, is an expert on drawing instruction in the grades, and she is now engaged in visiting public and parochial schools throughout the country demonstrating the efficiency of the Augsburg System of Drawing Instruction. We have had frequent occasion during the past few years, to quote from the excellent Augsburg manuals and reproduce lessons with sketches. Drawing is an important part of the school curriculum, and teachers desirous of examining into the merits of the Augsburg System should write for circulars and information to the Educational Publishing Co., 228 Wabash Ave., Chicago. Wherever possible, Miss Strawn will call and give a free demonstration of the best methods of instruction in the various grades.



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Catholic School Journal January

## Are YOU Qualified to Teach?

President David Felmley, of the State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, says that but six per cent. of the teachers of Illinois are normal school graduates, and not more than twenty per cent. have had as much as six weeks' normal training. The statistics of other states are similar. It is therefore evident why trained teachers are eagerly sought and why the supply is very short of the demand.

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Book One consists of work for the 3rd, 4th, and 5th years of the child's school life,—one exercise for each school day. These exercises may, of course, be taken in larger or smaller groups, at the discretion of the teacher. Each year has ten weeks' Observation Lessons; ten weeks' Study of Pictures; ten weeks' Study of Stories and Poems; five weeks' Study of Notes and Letters.

Each week's work contains four daily exercises in composition and one in elementary grammar. The grouping of the lessons as here indicated is upon the suggestion of the late Dr. E. E. White, his idea being to keep the child on one line of work until a good degree of proficiency is attained.

Composition deals with the creative and the constructive faculties; grammar with the analytic. The most effective school work in composition is done by inciting pupils to speak and to write with the utmost freedom, without hampering them in the beginning with rules. When a satisfactory degree of ease and proficiency is attained, grammatical exercises may be introduced with profit. The composition exercises given are not intended to teach reading, natural history, or spelling, but if possible to induce the pupil to say or to write something.

The Observation Lessons are intended to suggest, for oral and written work, subjects with which the child is already somewhat familiar. It is not expected that each child will answer every question. All children may not be familiar with each subject. The teacher may, of course, substitute other suitable subjects. The Pictures used are such as will suggest stories of interest to children, and about which they will talk or write freely. The Stories and Poems have the additional object of leading the pupils to appreciate some of the best things in children's literature.

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1st Year. The Mechanics of Writing,—capitals, punctuation, etc.

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3rd Year. The Parts of Speech, and, in simple inductive form, the office of each.

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This second book of the series is intended to provide a practical teaching manual of English for the three years preceding school. It consists of two parts, a Grammar and a Composition, which should be studied together. While each part is complete in itself, constant inter-reference welds the two into a unit. In many instances the same subjects are treated in both parts, in the one rather from the side of theory, in the other more directly from the side of practice. It is believed that this dual arrangement makes each part more logical, more practical, and more pedagogical. The lessons both in the Grammar and in the Composition are largely inductive. From usage as seen in sentences and in sections the pupil is led to develop the principles of correct speaking and effective writing. Rules and definitions are made clear before they are stated.

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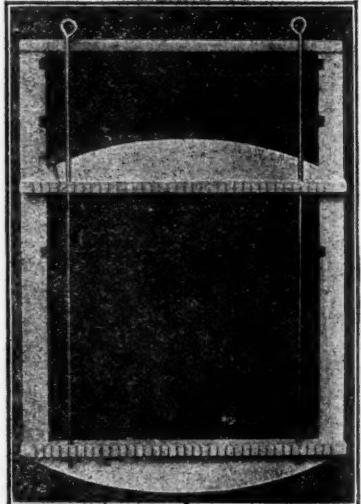
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is based on the child's experiences,—on the things he himself has done or has seen done. In dwelling on these experiences the fact also has been emphasized that real appreciation of literature depends largely upon a vivid remembrance of details and of acts seen and performed; without such remembrance the suggestions in literature can not be understood.

The practical value of grammar is emphasized in the Composition. The use and importance of its principles is constantly kept before the pupil by the application of them in oral and written work. In other words, the fact that a book on English must help to make fluent, correct, and effective speakers and writers has been the guiding principle in the preparation of this work.

The Grammar is divided into three parts, and the same is true of the Composition. The time given to the book in each week should be divided about equally between grammar and composition. The importance of the subjects seem to call for at least a daily lesson in each,—an ideal that some schools may be unable to attain.

**STEPS IN ENGLISH**, by John Morrow, M. S., superintendent of schools, Allegheny, Pa.; A. C. McLean, A. M., principal, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Thos. C. Blaisdell, A. M., professor Normal High School, Pittsburgh, Pa. Book One, 245 pp., cloth, 40 cents; Book Two, 350 pp., cloth, 60 cents. American Book Co., Publishers, New York, Cincinnati, Chicago.

The report of the proceedings and addresses of the first annual meeting of the Catholic Educational Association, held in St. Louis, July 12-14, has just been published, making an interesting and valuable book of 200 pages.

Besides presenting the papers read and synopses of the ensuing discussions, the report gives a brief history of the origin and growth of the parish school and college conferences, which have this year merged into a joint association, though maintaining their individual departments. The officers of the general association as well as those of the departments are given, as is also a list of all those who attended the convention. The arrangement and completeness of the report reflect credit on the secretary, Rev. F. W. Howard, of Columbus, Ohio.

#### Bible in Public Schools.

Judge Cobb of Corsicana, Tex., has handed down the following decision in the case of E. H. Church and others against W. L. Bullock and others in the matter of reading the bible in the opening exercises of the city public school of Corsicana:

"The petitioners make two points:

"1. That reading any part of the bible, singing and reciting the Lord's prayer as a stated opening exercise in the public schools is prohibited by the constitution, because such schools being maintained by the public funds, the people are thereby compelled to support a 'place of worship'—that is to say, they contended that the carrying on of such exercises constitutes the school house a place of worship.

"2. That the reading of the bible, reciting the Lord's prayer and singing of religious songs is a teaching of sectarian doctrines and that by such acts the provision of the constitution against the use of the common school funds for the support of any sectarian institution, etc., is violated.

"The proof shows that the school board by resolution permits the reading of selections from the bible, singing of songs and repeating of the

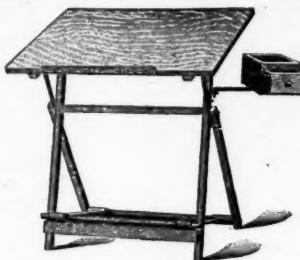
Lord's prayer as a stated opening exercise in the schools of the city.

"That pursuant to such resolution some of the teachers have adopted and habitually use an opening exercise, consisting of songs, the repeating of the Lord's prayer and the reading of certain portions of the bible, such as the book of Proverbs, the Psalms, stories

of bible characters and the 'Sermon on the Mount.'

"In my opinion the use of such exercises does not constitute an infraction of the constitutional provisions touching the attendance and support of a place of worship. That such provisions in the constitution as interpreted in the light of history of their adoption

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and the usages of the American people do not prohibit the use of religious exercises in the public schools or other institutions.

"That the resolution of th board is too broad in that it does not limit the discretion of the teachers, but leaves open to their judgment what parts of the bible contains sectarian instruction, and that such resolution should be modified so as to express what certain portions of the bible may be read, and I further hold that such resolution may be so modified as to prevent the reading of the 'Sermon on the Mount,' the book of Proverbs, the book of Psalms and the historic characters in the old testament."

THE following communication has been addressed by the Apostolic Delegate to the hierarchy of the United States:

His Holiness, Pius X., has charged me with the agreeable duty of conveying to you, and through you to your

clergy and people, his sincerest thanks for the offerings sent to him as Peter's Pence, either through this Apostolic delegation or otherwise, during the past year, 1904. At the same time the Holy Father imparts a special blessing to all those who have contributed.

I regret to state that, notwithstanding the generous response of the American people, the financial condition of the Holy See is far from being prosperous or satisfactory. The present sad state of some of the most prosperous nations of Europe and the increased demands on the funds of the Church, are the principal causes of the actual financial situation of the Holy See—a situation upon which our Holy Father looks with alarm, because, unless his children come forward more liberally to his assistance, notwithstanding the utmost economy practiced in every department, he can hardly meet the exigencies of the vast administration of the Church which extends throughout the whole world.

These new aids may consist in the opening of daily contribution lists in the leading Catholic newspapers; in the forming of "Peter's Pence Societies," even among the young and the children; in the keeping of "Peter's Pence Boxes" in churches and chapels, seminaries, colleges, academies, parochial schools, and in halls where Catholic societies meet, and in any other pious device which the piety of the faithful may suggest, according to places and circumstances. Consequently the pious work of Peter's Pence might be divided into three branches, namely: diocesan, if it extends to the whole diocese; parochial, if it be established within the limits of the parish; and collegiate, if it refers to newspapers, periodicals, seminaries, colleges, schools, societies, etc. Each branch should have the approval of the Ordinary if diocesan, of the pastor if parochial, and of the superior of the institution if collegiate.

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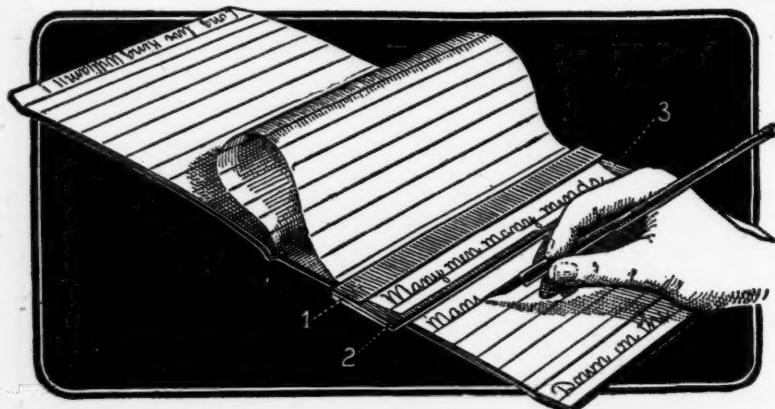


FIG. 1—One inch card-board band. FIG. 2—Four pieces of blotting paper  $2\frac{1}{4}$  inches wide. Card-board band and blotting paper fastened together at either end with wire threads. FIG. 3—Copy slipped under card-board band and held in position by band for copying. As each line is written copy and blotter are moved down to dry writing, which brings copy in place for next line.

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<i>Presentation Nuns</i> .....	2	<i>Sisters of the Holy Cross</i> .....	9
<i>Sisters of Notre Dame</i> .....	19	<i>Sisters of the Sacred Heart</i> .....	4
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<i>Sisters of St. Dominic</i> .....	12	Miscellaneous Schools not classified.....	68

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